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ABSTRACT

Although some people believed that the end of the Cold War would herald a new age of peace, the 1990s have seen more than five million people die in over 35 deadly conflicts. New technologies have made warfare ever more deadly. There is, however, a breadth of options available to prevent or control deadly conflict in the world. This curriculum module aims to introduce high school students to the tools that have been used successfully to prevent violence, and to demonstrate why it is urgent that the United States act to prevent conflict beyond its borders. Through group work and simulations, students can gain experience in analyzing deadly conflicts and prescribing strategies for preventing them. The module begins with an introduction and rationale, an overview, goals, materials and equipment needed, grade levels and subjects, social science standards, time and suggested sequence of activities, and small group roles. The three supporting lessons are: (1) "What Is 'Deadly Conflict?'" (contains 2 transparencies, 2 teacher information cards, and 6 handouts); (2) "Analyzing Conflict" (contains 2 transparencies, a teacher information card, and 11 handouts); and (3) "How Might Recent Conflicts Have Been Prevented?" (contains a teacher information card and 11 handouts). Appendixes contain an extensive glossary and a list of general references, as well as references for each lesson. (BT)

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Preventing Deadly Conflict

Toward a World Without War

SO 032 287

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PREVENTING DEADLY CONFLICT
TOWARD A WORLD WITHOUT WAR

Developed by Greg Francis

with contributions from Yukie Toyama and Paula Wichienkuer

in cooperation with the Carnegie Commission on Preventing Deadly Conflict

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Module Introduction

PREVENTING DEADLY CONFLICT

TOWARD A WORLD WITHOUT WAR

Rationale and Introduction to Lessons

"Since war begins in the minds of men, it is in the minds of men that the defenses of peace must be constructed."

— Archibald MacLeish

Since the dawn of history, war has plagued the human species. Although some believed that the end of the Cold War would herald a new age of peace, in the 1990s more than 5 million people have died in over 35 deadly conflicts (conflicts in which 1,000 or more people died in any one year),[1] and new technologies have made warfare ever more deadly. In light of these observations, it is easy to become convinced that deadly conflict is an inevitable part of the human condition.

Yet there is reason to hope. There were no deadly interstate conflicts (as opposed to *intrastate* conflicts) in 1997, and regions of the world exist where it is nearly impossible to imagine war occurring. In many cases, countries now have a greater incentive to cooperate than to engage in conflict in light of economic globalization and advances in technology and communication. These changes mean that armed battles even in remote areas increasingly have worldwide effects, so it is more important than ever that the international community try to prevent such conflict. If the governments of the world work in unison to prevent armed conflict in areas of high tension, and if a culture of conflict prevention can be created, the elimination of deadly conflict on a grand scale is yet possible.

Secondary school students often show little interest in violence that occurs in remote, unknown areas of the world, and may not believe that deadly conflict is preventable. However, there is a breadth of options available to prevent or control deadly conflict in our world. This curriculum module aims to introduce high school students to the tools that have been successfully used to prevent violence, and to demonstrate why it is urgent that the United States act to prevent conflict beyond its borders. Students will learn how to use these tools, and will discover that not only can deadly conflict be predicted; it can also be prevented or limited. Through group work and simulations, students will gain experience in analyzing deadly conflicts and prescribing strategies for preventing them.

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[1] Carnegie Commission on Preventing Deadly Conflict, *Preventing Deadly Conflict, Final Report* (New York: Carnegie Corporation of New York, 1997) p. 12.

module introduction

Although this module focuses on large-scale intergroup violence, the conflict resolution and prevention skills that students learn can also be applied to more personally relevant situations. Deadly conflict often occurs because a group of people see violence as the only way to achieve their means. Though the atrocities committed by the Serbian military in Kosovo and the tragic shootings at Columbine High School represent different types and scales of violence, they are both cases where people turned to violence because they may have believed there was no other way to achieve their goals. Perhaps by learning how global deadly conflict can be avoided, students can also prevent the outbreak of violence in their own schools and communities.

Carnegie Commission on Preventing Deadly Conflict

This module is based on the *Final Report* of the Carnegie Commission on Preventing Deadly Conflict. The Commission was established in 1994 in order to "address the looming threats to world peace of intergroup violence and to advance new ideas for the prevention and resolution of deadly conflict."[2] This module is intended to make the content of the Commission's *Final Report* accessible to secondary school students, and was developed with the funding and support of the Carnegie Corporation of New York.

Overview

The following is a brief summary of the organization of this module.

Lesson One: What Is "Deadly Conflict"?

This lesson encourages students to think about how deadly conflict affects different groups of people and why each of us should care about large-scale violence anywhere in the world.

Students discover how much knowledge they possess about recent armed conflicts in the world and learn some of the common causes of conflict. They then view slides of recent conflict scenes and ponder the effects of deadly conflicts, specifically in regard to non-combatants. Finally, students discuss whether or not Americans should care about deadly conflict in other parts of the world.

Lesson Two: Analyzing Conflict

This lesson introduces five tools of foreign policy that governments can use to influence events in other countries. After creating posters and giving presentations about these tools, students analyze the war in Bosnia to learn about the causes, effects, and essential elements of a real-world deadly conflict, as well as possible solutions.

Students are divided into ten groups and given information on the situation in Bosnia in the autumn of 1992. Each group is responsible for one foreign policy tool, with half the groups assuming the role of the United Nations and the other half simulating the United States. Each group explains how it might use its foreign policy tool to end the conflict, and then the class compares its intervention plan to what actually happened in Bosnia from 1993 to 1995.

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[2] *Ibid.*, inside cover.

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Lesson Three: How Might Recent Conflicts Have Been Prevented?

In groups, students research a recent area of conflict from the ten choices presented in the lesson and create a plan that might have prevented violence from breaking out in that area. In their groups, students will find the causes of conflict in that particular area and decide how to address these causes.

The groups then teach their classmates about the conflict they researched and offer their prescribed solution to the conflict. The module ends with the class creating its own list of the most common causes of conflict and the most important elements of any conflict prevention plan.

Module Goals

Each of the lessons in this curriculum module has specific learning objectives listed. The following reflect larger goals for the module as a whole.

In this curriculum module, students will:

- develop an understanding of the nature of "deadly conflict"
- address the essential question: Why should we care about deadly conflict around the world?
- identify the causes of deadly conflict and gain experience in predicting deadly conflict
- become familiar with the tools that nations use to prevent or resolve deadly conflicts
- determine and analyze the tools the international community and individual countries used to affect the conflict in Bosnia
- reflect and speculate upon which tools could have been used to prevent or minimize the violence in Bosnia during the early stages of the conflict
- learn about several recent deadly conflicts in the world
- prescribe strategies that could have been used to prevent recent deadly conflicts
- consider how the tools for preventing deadly conflict on a large scale might be applied to smaller conflicts (e.g., interpersonal conflicts)
- learn to think critically and make informed opinions
- evaluate different opinions and generate alternative perspectives on an issue
- learn methods for enhancing awareness and communication
- work effectively in small and large groups
- learn to organize and express opinions
- research a topic and organize information into a cohesive report

module introduction

Materials

Handouts and primary-source documents have been provided with each lesson. Permission is given to reproduce these handouts and documents for classroom use only.

Ten slides are included for use in Lesson One. Instructions for the use of these slides are provided in the lesson.

The Carnegie Commission on Preventing Deadly Conflict's *Final Report* is also included with this module. Teachers are encouraged to use this report as background for the curriculum module.

Teachers may also find it useful to hang a large world map on the wall of the classroom for reference.

Difficult and ambiguous words are underlined where they appear in the text. Please refer to the glossary (pages 89-91) for working definitions of these words. You may want to make a copy of the glossary for each student.

Equipment

Overhead projector, slide projector

Grade Levels, Subjects

This curriculum module is designed for high school students in grades ten through twelve and for students in community colleges. It is recommended for use in global/international studies, world history, contemporary issues, and conflict resolution classes.

Connection to Social Science Standards

The National Standards for History recommends that

> The student understands major sources of tension and conflict in the contemporary world and efforts that have been made to address them. (p. 211, Standard 2D)

Specifically, students should be able to

> Analyze the causes, consequences, and moral implications for the world community of mass killings and famines in such places as Cambodia, Somalia, Rwanda, and Bosnia-Herzegovina. (p. 84)

Time, Suggested Sequence of Activities

Preventing Deadly Conflict is divided into three lessons. While Lessons Two and Three could conceivably be integrated into your curriculum on their own, we recommend that you teach the module as a whole. Lesson One should take three periods and Lessons Two and Three should take three or four periods each. Additionally, students may need to research conflict areas at home in preparation for their Lesson Three presentations.

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Small-Group Roles

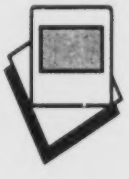
Preventing Deadly Conflict engages students in small-group activities. Some of the suggested roles and responsibilities for students working in small groups are:

- **Facilitator**: responsible for reading instructions or designating someone in the group to read instructions, for assuring that the group is on task, and for communicating with the instructor
- **Recorder**: responsible for writing answers to questions, taking notes, etc.
- **Timekeeper**: responsible for keeping track of the time allocated for activities
- **Materials Manager**: responsible for obtaining and keeping track of materials used by the group
- **Harmonizer**: responsible for the group process, making sure, for example, that no one dominates the discussion and that everyone is participating
- **Reporter**: responsible for organizing group presentations and presenting results of activities to the class

Some activities in this curriculum module have specific small-group roles listed by individual lesson.

Icons

For easier reference, the following icons are used throughout the module:



Slide Presentation

Small-Group Activity

Transparency

Group Presentation

Lesson One

WHAT IS "DEADLY CONFLICT"?

Organizing Questions

- What is the nature of "deadly conflict"?
- What are the causes and effects of deadly conflict?
- Should the United States act to prevent deadly conflict in other parts of the world?

Introduction

This lesson gives students the background necessary to analyze conflicts and prescribe prevention strategies for them. In part one, students examine the definition of "deadly conflict" and ascertain how many recent deadly conflicts they can identify. In part two, students learn about the most common causes of deadly conflict and then identify the causes of conflicts with which they are familiar. In part three, students consider the effects of deadly conflict by answering questions about a series of slides. In part four, the lesson concludes with a class discussion on whether or not the United States should act to prevent deadly conflicts abroad. This lesson is designed to take three class periods.

Objectives

knowledge

- to define the term "deadly conflict"
- to learn about some of the common causes and effects of deadly conflict
- to consider arguments for and against preventing deadly conflict in other parts of the world

attitude

- to realize the harm that conflicts can cause to people and societies

skill

- to work effectively in small groups

Materials

- Large world map
- Overhead projector
- Slide projector
- Slides, #1-10
- Transparency #1, *Definition: Deadly Conflict*
- Transparency #2, *Causes of Deadly Conflict Chart*
- Teacher Information Card #1, *Commentary on the Slides*

- Teacher Information Card #2, *Should the United States Act to Prevent Deadly Conflict?: Arguments*
- Handout #1A, *Selected Definitions*, one copy per student
- Handout #1B, *Political World Map*, one copy per group of three or four students
- Handout #1C, *Conflict Areas in the 1990s*, one copy per student
- Handout #1D, *Causes of Deadly Conflict*, one copy per group of three or four students
- Handout #1E, *Questions About Slides*, one copy per student
- Handout #1F, *Should the United States Act to Prevent Deadly Conflict?*, one copy per student

Preparation

Make transparencies out of Handout #1B, *Political World Map*, and Handout #1C, *Conflict Areas in the 1990s*.

Procedure—Part 1: Defining "Deadly Conflict"

Students should understand that not all conflicts are necessarily bad. Conflict is an unavoidable, natural phenomenon. Responses to conflict can be positive or negative; violence is but one of many ways one can choose to respond to conflict. This is true of relations between countries, between groups, and between individuals.

1. Ask students for examples of conflicts of any type. Write these responses on the board. From these answers, ask students to define the term "conflict." You may want to have students develop a web or concept map using this term to help them categorize different types of conflict.
2. Follow up with the question, "Which of these conflicts became violent?" On the board, circle the conflicts that escalated into violence. Point out to students the conflicts that were not deadly, and explain that there are non-violent ways to resolve conflict. Examples of non-violent responses to conflict include negotiation, compromise, elections, protests, labor strikes, and acts of civil disobedience.

3. Place Transparency #1, *Definition: Deadly Conflict*, on the overhead. Discuss with the class which of the conflicts on the board fit this definition. Emphasize that the focus of this curriculum module is on continual conflicts that occur on a large-scale basis either between countries or within a country. Although this module focuses on conflicts between countries or between large groups within a country, parallels may be made with conflicts on a smaller scale (between individuals, for example).
4. Distribute Handout #1A, *Selected Definitions*. Make sure students understand the contents of this handout.

5. Divide the class into groups of three or four students each. Give a copy of Handout #1B, *Political World Map,* to each group, and place the prepared transparency of the same map on the overhead. Give the groups three minutes to label as many countries as they can that have had deadly conflicts (as defined on Transparency #1, *Definition: Deadly Conflict*) in the 1990s. When time is up, ask the groups for their answers. Mark these on the transparency, or ask the students that respond to mark where they think the conflicts occurred.

Note to teacher: This unit focuses on conflicts in the 1990s because these conflicts are probably the most familiar to students.

6. Have group members write their names on Handout #1B, *Political World Map,* and collect this handout from each group. (At the end of the curriculum module, students will again be asked which conflicts they know about, and will compare their post- and pre-module knowledge to discover how much they learned.)

7. Place the prepared transparency of Handout #1C, *Conflict Areas in the 1990s,* over the *Political World Map* transparency. Point out the large number of conflicts in the 1990s, and tell the students that most of these were not between two countries, but took place wholly within the borders of a single country. To assess prior knowledge, ask students which conflicts they have heard about. Distribute a copy of Handout #1C, *Conflict Areas in the 1990s,* to students and ask them to keep it handy for future use.

Part Two: Causes of Deadly Conflict

1. Divide the class into small groups of three or four students each. For this activity, each group must choose a deadly conflict in the 20th century. Since this activity requires that students have considerable knowledge of the conflict, encourage them to choose the deadly conflicts with which they are most familiar. Multiple groups may choose the same deadly conflict.

2. Instruct students to think about what causes deadly conflicts. Distribute a copy of Handout #1D, *Causes of Deadly Conflict,* to each group, and give them ten minutes to discuss which three factors were most responsible for the outbreak of war or violence in the case of the deadly conflict they chose.

3. Have a reporter from each group announce the results of their group's discussion. Mark the causes each group cites in the appropriate box on Transparency #2, *Causes of Deadly Conflict Chart,* as groups present their findings. Ask the class if they notice any trends or can draw any conclusions from these results.

4. Point out that some causes of conflict are external (e.g., hostile countries, border disputes, regional war), and that other causes are internal (e.g., repressive governments, economic inequalities between ethnic or religious groups). Remind students to think about these underlying causes of conflict as they proceed through the curriculum module.

Part Three: The Effects of Deadly Conflict

Frequently, the high number of casualties in deadly conflicts reported by the media numbs Americans to the reality of what living amid such violence is like. This section of the module aims to give students an idea of how deadly conflict affects the daily lives of non-combatants.

1. Prepare the slide projector and Slides #1-10.
2. Distribute Handout #1E, *Questions About Slides,* to each student.
3. Answer any questions students may have about the directions. Allow students to view the slides briefly, pausing for a minute on each slide to give students time to write quick answers on the handout (their "reactions" to the slide), guided by the questions in front of them.
4. Return to the first slide. As it appears on the screen, ask students what their responses were to the questions about this slide. After listening to several of their responses, explain the context of the slide using the information on Teacher Information Card #1, *Commentary on the Slides.* Repeat this process for each slide.
5. **Debriefing:** Some slides may provoke strong reactions among the students. Some students may have relatives or other acquaintances in places shown on the slides, or the slides may remind them of a conflict in their daily life. Teachers may wish to offer a writing assignment allowing students to express their emotions, reactions, or possible connections to the images on the slides.

Part Four: Should We Care?

1. Review the main points of the curriculum module so far: the definition of deadly conflict, the causes of deadly conflict, and the effects of deadly conflict.
2. Distribute Handout #1F, *Should the United States Act to Prevent Deadly Conflict?* Students should write their answers on the handout in groups, in pairs, or individually. Give students fifteen minutes to complete the sheet. After time is up, lead a discussion on each of the five reasons given for preventing deadly conflict. Teachers may find Teacher Information Card #2, *Should the United States Act to Prevent Deadly Conflict?: Arguments,* useful in facilitating this discussion.

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3. As U.S. citizens, students have the ability to influence whether or not the United States intervenes in foreign conflicts, and how it does so. Therefore, students should be aware of the ways in which the United States can intervene in deadly conflicts abroad. In the next lesson, students will learn about five foreign policy tools that countries may use to influence others, and will observe how these tools were used during the 1992-1995 war in Bosnia.

4. (*Optional Assessment Activity*) As homework, give students the following assignment:

   Write a paragraph addressing the questions "Should the United States try to prevent deadly conflicts in other areas of the world? Why or why not?"

DEFINITION: DEADLY CONFLICT

Deadly conflict =
systematic, sustained violence between groups within a country or between countries

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transparency #2

CAUSES OF DEADLY CONFLICT CHART

CONFLICT	CAUSE #1	CAUSE #2	CAUSE #3
1)			
2)			
3)			
4)			
5)			
6)			
7)			
8)			
9)			
10)			

teacher information card #1

COMMENTARY ON THE SLIDES

Slide #1:
Background: A South Korean soldier on duty at the demilitarized zone (Panmunjom, South Korean side). Since soldiers here cannot carry weapons, they are experts in the martial arts. Several soldiers spend the day staring down their counterparts across the border, in effect engaging in psychological warfare.

Goal: Students think about what it would be like to have a job in which conflict is a constant preoccupation. Students ponder how conflict creates fear.

Discussion Topics: How does it feel to be afraid? What happens to one's body and mind if one is afraid over a long period of time?

Slide #2:
Background: The Russian army fought local Muslim insurgents in Chechnya, a region of Russia, in 1994. The national army lost, but inflicted great damage on Chechnya in the process. Fighting erupted between the two groups again in 1999 and continued into 2000.

Goal: Students think about how conflict affects innocent civilians, causes people to completely change their lives, and creates needless destruction.

Discussion topics: Besides destruction of buildings, what other forms of waste does war create? What are the economic costs of war? What effects does war have upon the environment?

Slide #3:
Background: This boy's neighborhood in Lafon, southern Sudan, has been destroyed in the protracted civil war racking this huge African country. War between the government (centered in north Sudan) and rebels in the south, combined with years of drought, have brought famine to many areas of Sudan.

Goal: Students think about the effect war has on children.

Discussion topics: What is life like for children surrounded by war? How does war change the activities children do? What does this boy do with his time? If you were a child, what would you do if your neighborhood were destroyed?

Slide #4:
Background: This woman was a victim of violence during the Bosnia conflict. The United Nations (UN) soldier is carrying her to a helicopter where she can be airlifted to Sarajevo and given better medical attention. The UN peacekeeping forces in Bosnia were not authorized to engage in violence, but performed rescue operations and distributed humanitarian aid.

Goal: Students realize that the gunfire of war often injures innocent civilians. Students realize that the UN can be and has been involved in conflicts.

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Discussion topics: What is your image of the UN? What are some conflicts the UN has been involved in? What is the role of the UN in resolving conflicts? How can military forces minimize the impact of their weapons on civilians?

Slide #5:
Background: Angola was engaged in a civil war for scores of years. Millions of land mines were planted during this conflict, leading to several accidental maimings, injuries, and deaths. These women were all maimed by land mines. Over 2,000 people are maimed or killed by land mines per month.[1]

Goal: Students think about the debilitating injuries that land mines can cause to civilians. Students realize that the instruments used to wage war can continue to inflict damage long after the war is over. Students ponder how debilitating injuries received during war can change lives forever.

Discussion topics: For how long do land mines remain capable of explosion? (Answer: up to fifty years after being planted.[2]) How would you change your behavior if you lived in a country riddled by land mines? What do you think about the use of weapons that can cause high levels of damage to non-targeted people?

Slide #6:
Background: Protestants and Catholics in Northern Ireland have clashed off and on in the twentieth century. In this picture, mourners take cover as someone launches a surprise attack upon them during a funeral service.

Goal: Students realize the extent to which conflict can permeate events we hold sacred. Students realize that many people must live their lives in constant fear due to violence.

Discussion topics: In which places would you feel appalled to see such an attack?

Slide #7:
Background: These boys are in line for a physical examination at a health clinic in the Operation Lifeline Sudan (OLS) UNICEF-assisted Ketbek Minors Camp in Nasir, southern Sudan. UNICEF/OLS transports humanitarian relief by air to the hardest hit areas of the civil war in Sudan, "providing supplementary feeding for children and other vulnerable groups as well as supplying non-food needs such as immunization, health care, water, and agricultural and educational supplies." (UNICEF 93-BOU1008, Betty Press)

Goal: Students consider the effects that deadly conflict can have on health. Students recognize the role of non-governmental organizations (NGOs), governments, and the UN in providing aid to war-torn areas.

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[1] "Land Mine Facts," United Nations.
http://www.un.org/Depts/dha/mct/facts.htm
[2] "Land-Mines: A Deadly Inheritance," UNICEF.
http://www.unicef.org/graca/mines.htm

teacher information card #1

Discussion topics: What health problems would be expected among refugees? Who provides health services during times of intense deadly conflict? What are the strengths and limitations of humanitarian relief efforts in areas of deadly conflict?

Slide #8:
Background: As a smaller Muslim girl stands in front of her beside a weapon propped up against a barricade of sandbags, an older girl, wearing the logo of the Amal political party, holds a semi-automatic machine gun on a street in West Beirut in 1984, when the capital of Lebanon was divided into warring factions. Although they are apparently residents of this part of Beirut, their particular circumstances are unknown, so there is nothing to confirm that they are actual fighters. (UNICEF 833/84, Said Elatab)

Goal: Students consider the lives of "child soldiers." Students investigate the roots of violent reactions to conflicts.

Discussion topics: Why do children become combatants in deadly conflicts? How do civilian adults and combatants in war-torn areas feel about children fighting in the conflict? How might participating in warfare at such a young age change a child's view of the world? How can children be protected from the ravages of war?

Slide #9:
Background: The 1992 acquittal of the police officers accused of beating Rodney King sparked racial riots in Los Angeles. These riots took the form of arson, looting, and violence against individuals, resulting in over 50 deaths.

Goal: Students relate conflicts in other countries to similar conflicts in the United States. Students realize that there has been deadly conflict recently in the United States and that it could recur.

Discussion topics: Is this the same type of conflict as the ethnic conflicts in Bosnia or Rwanda? How can we prevent racial conflicts like this from happening again?

Slide #10:
Background: Two Columbine High School students went on a shooting rampage against their peers in April 1999. Though one can only speculate why they chose to cause so much bloodshed, the bullying they were subjected to was said to be a big factor.

Goal: Students become aware that deadly conflicts do not occur only in foreign lands or even in large U.S. cities; they can occur anywhere and within any age group. Students see that the defining characteristic of deadly conflict is the use of violence against other humans in response to a problem.

Discussion topics: What do the Columbine High School shootings have in common with other conflicts you've seen in the slides or know about?

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SHOULD THE UNITED STATES ACT TO PREVENT DEADLY CONFLICT?: ARGUMENTS

The following arguments for and against the reasons listed in Handout #1F will help facilitate discussion about the risks and responsibilities of intervention in foreign countries by illustrating possible motivations for intervening in conflict. Encourage students to refer to specific cases to support their arguments in all instances.

Reason #1: *"War or disorder impairs a country's economic development, so the United States may not be able to obtain the natural resources or products it needs from countries suffering from deadly conflict."*

Arguments for:
When war or violence breaks out in a country, that country usually must divert valuable resources to military purposes, slowing economic development. Further, the damage to factories, office buildings, farmland, airports, highways, and other structures greatly hurts a country's economy. When production of goods or services decreases in a country, the United States won't be able to import as many goods from that country, driving prices in the United States up or even causing shortages of crucial materials. For example, the United States imports a lot of electronic items and automobiles from Japan. Large-scale conflict in Japan would likely decrease the number of automobiles and electronic items made there, and could cause a scarcity of these items in the United States. Thus, it is in the self-interest of the United States to prevent war and deadly conflict abroad.

Arguments against:
Most areas where conflict breaks out are of little economic interest to the United States. Conflict often occurs in poor countries that produce few items Americans want, and that don't have the money to buy American goods. In countries that are economic rivals of the United States, conflicts may give American producers a chance to make up ground while their competition is down.

Reason #2: *"War or disorder should be stopped in countries where the United States has a strategic interest because such conflicts would pose a threat to U.S. foreign policy goals."*

Arguments for:
Around the world, there are certain places where the United States has strong interests in peace and stability, due to historical, geographic, or security reasons. For example, the United States would be worried if serious conflict broke out in Poland. Since conflict tends to spread, Russia and Germany (which neighbor Poland) might also be drawn into the conflict. Russia and Germany are large, important economic powers, and since the United States wants stability in these countries, it should try to help resolve any conflict that occurs in Poland. Similarly, if violence broke out in Canada, the United States would have to worry about the fighting spreading south into U.S. territory. In such cases, the United States should

intervene to prevent the violence from spreading into areas considered important for the United States.

Arguments against:

War and disorder may sometimes actually further U.S. goals. For example, the instability in South Africa in the 1980s was actually good, because it ended apartheid. In cases such as this, disorder aids U.S. strategic interests in the long run. Further, intervention by the United States often creates anti-U.S. sentiment in other countries. This hardens opposition to foreign intervention, and may have the opposite of the intended effect. An example occurred when the United States entered South Vietnam to help the South Vietnamese fight North Vietnamese communists and the Vietcong. The destruction done by U.S. forces turned some South Vietnamese against the United States.

Reason #3: *"Leaders who start wars or conflicts for little or no reason other than to expand their personal power should be stopped, otherwise they will cause even more trouble in the future."*

Arguments for:

By opposing aggressive acts by villains, larger wars can be avoided. The example usually used to support this argument is the United States' and other countries' reluctance toward opposing Hitler before World War II. Without any opposition, Hitler reoccupied the demilitarized Rhineland zone, invaded Austria, and occupied Czechoslovakia. Many people argue that this policy of "appeasement"—allowing Hitler to freely commit acts of aggression rather than confronting him—made Hitler think that the United States and the European powers would never oppose him, and increased his appetite for conquest. If Hitler's aggressive acts had been resisted, perhaps World War II could have been avoided in Europe.

Arguments against:

The United States is not the world's police officer; other countries should solve their regional problems independently. When the United States solves other regions' difficulties, it drains U.S. resources. Also, the United States cannot always accurately decide who is right and who is wrong in any given conflict, particularly in unfamiliar regions of the world. For example, early in the Cold War the United States supported the apartheid government of South Africa. This government suppressed the human rights of the majority of the population, yet the United States did not reprimand South African leaders. The United States might make other mistaken judgments like this; we cannot assume that the United States is objective in its assessments of foreign governments.

Reason #4: *"If one tyrannical leader commits atrocities without encountering any opposition from the international community, other tyrannical leaders will be encouraged to commit atrocities as well."*

Arguments for:
For example, if the leader of one country attempts to kill all citizens who oppose him and the international community doesn't act against him, leaders of other countries may also attempt to kill citizens who disagree with them without worrying about any adverse consequences. However, if someone speaks out against the first leader and punishes him, holds a trial against him, or creates a forum for compromise, other leaders will realize that if they commit atrocities or start wars without justification, they too will face serious opposition and possible negative consequences from the international community.

Arguments against:
Despite the intervention of the international community, several leaders worldwide continue to commit atrocities. The spread of democracy is a far more important way to prevent atrocities than intervention by third-party countries. In a democracy, citizens elect their leaders. If elected leaders in a democracy try to kill their own citizens, they will be thrown out of office. This internal pressure by a country's own citizens guarantees security more than any external country ever can. Further, democracies rarely attack other countries because citizens are not likely to support policies in which their fellow citizens may be killed, unless there is a reason compelling enough to justify risking citizens' lives.

Reason #5: *"If we can, we should try to stop war or conflict in other countries because innocent people are being injured and killed."*

Arguments for:
Some people believe that we should treat other people the way we want to be treated. If we were living in constant fear of being killed by a violent group, we would want someone to help bring peace and security to us, even if they lived halfway around the world. Therefore, since the United States sometimes has the resources to help end deadly conflicts, it has a moral obligation to do so. Our common existence as humans makes us responsible for helping others in distress if possible.

Arguments against:
Even a country as wealthy as the United States lacks the resources to stop all conflicts in the world, so it must choose its battles wisely. Blind U.S. intervention may unintentionally strengthen opposing forces, as it did in Somalia when food and relief supplies were sent to help starving citizens, and belligerent armies confiscated the supplies for their own use. Further, intervention often kills or injures innocent people. During the Persian Gulf War, UN aircraft bombed a civilian shelter, killing innocent Iraqis. Rather than making such costly errors, the United States should intervene only in those conflicts it understands well and is confident it can end.

handout #1a

Selected Definitions

civilian: a person not in the military or police force

deadly conflict: systematic, sustained violence between groups within a country or between countries

interstate: between two or more states (countries). For example, the conflict between Pakistan and India is an interstate conflict.

intrastate: within a state (country). The conflict in Northern Ireland and the U.S. Civil War are examples of intrastate conflicts.

refugee: one who flees to a foreign country in order to escape danger or persecution. Refugees may flee for religious, racial, political, or human rights reasons, or because of territorial partition (e.g., India and Pakistan in 1947).

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POLITICAL WORLD MAP

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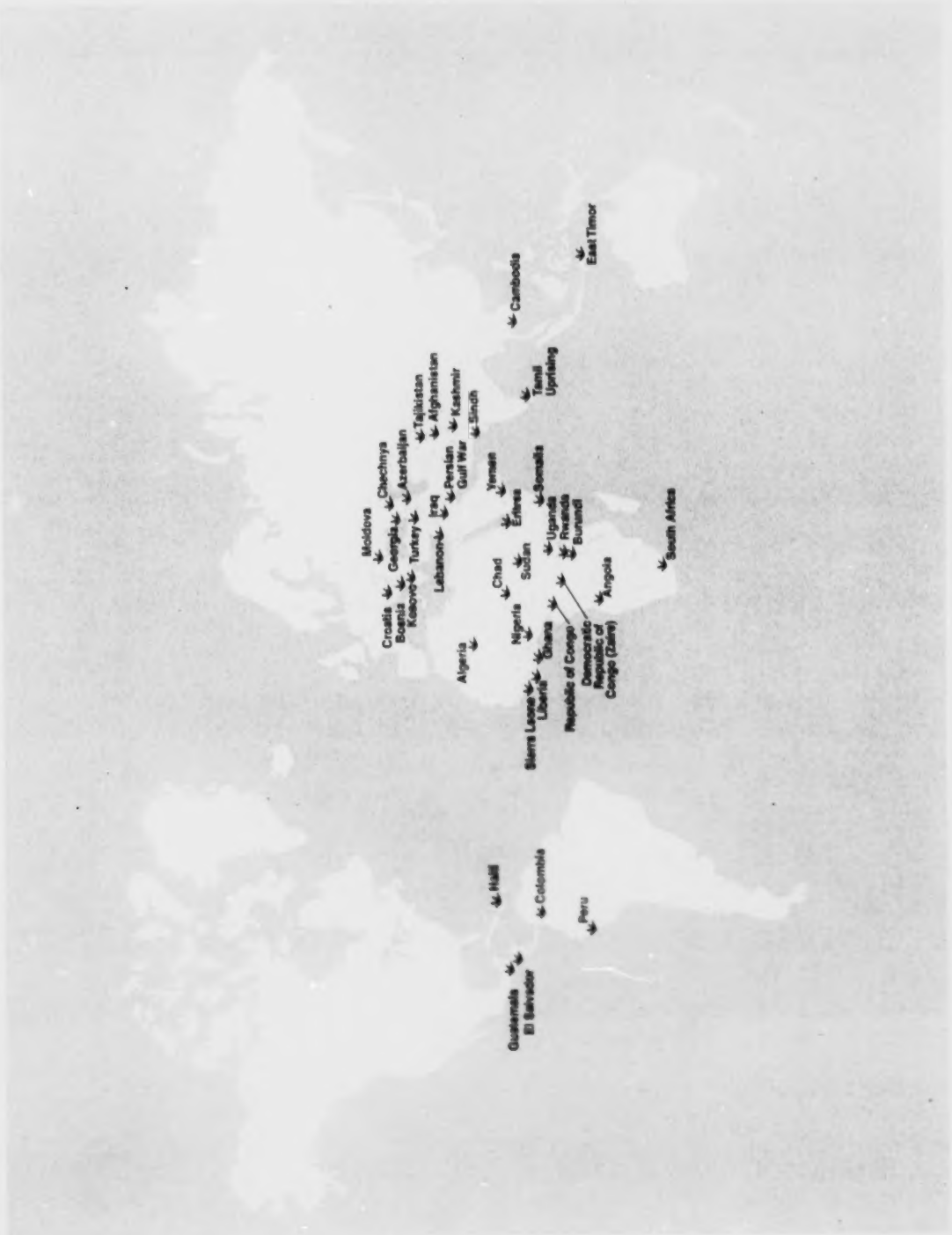
handout #1c

Conflict Areas in the 1990s



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CAUSES OF DEADLY CONFLICT

Violence is but one way in which people may respond to conflict. Although there were approximately seventy actual or emerging ethnic, nationalist, territorial, or religious conflicts occurring throughout the world in 1999,[3] conflicts between countries (interstate) or between groups within a country (intrastate) can usually be resolved peacefully. Canada and the United States have had disputes over fishing and acid rain, but these conflicts did not become deadly. French-speaking Canadians in Quebec sometimes find themselves in conflict with the English-speaking people of Canada, but there has been no violence between these two groups. These examples indicate that deadly clashes are preventable in both interstate and intrastate conflicts. What, then, are the factors that turn conflicts violent or deadly?

Interstate Conflict:

Conflict between two states (nations) is rooted in the traditional desire of states to defend, maintain, or extend their interests and power. Sometimes states go to war with other countries to do so. The following are more specific causes of interstate conflict:

- disputes over territory and boundaries
- perceived mistreatment of members of a "kin" ethnic group living in a nearby country
- fighting or rebellion in neighboring countries
- disputes with another country over use of natural resources (oil, water, etc.)
- desire to gain access to another country's supply of natural resources
- history of ongoing problems with another country

Intrastate Conflict:

According to the Carnegie Commission on Preventing Deadly Conflict, the deepest causes of intrastate conflict are "economic despair, social injustice, and political oppression." More specific causes are listed below:

Economic Despair

- widespread poverty
- shortage of vital natural resources (water, food, fuel, electricity, etc.)
- rapid population growth
- drastic economic changes
- economic discrimination against minority groups
- economic inequality
- rising unemployment
- clashes between modernization efforts and those who want to maintain traditional lifestyles

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[3] Carnegie Corporation of New York, "About Carnegie Corporation," *http://www.carnegie.org/sub/about/pdcgrants.html*

handout #1d

Social Injustice
- long-term patterns of discrimination against religious or ethnic minority groups
- corrupt governments that steal or misuse the people's money
- lack of trust in the judiciary system to apply laws fairly

Political Oppression
- government suppression or punishment of those who speak out in opposition to its philosophies or policies
- lack of representation of minority groups in the government

The likelihood of deadly intrastate conflict is especially high when there is a power vacuum in a country (no one group has a solid hold on power). This can occur when regimes suddenly change, or when the government collapses and no group remains to maintain order. Consequently, conflict is particularly likely to occur in countries where colonialism or the Cold War left unstable political or economic legacies.

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QUESTIONS ABOUT SLIDES

Directions: *As you view the following slides, briefly answer the questions below. Also, write any emotional reactions you may have to the slide in the space to the side of each question.*

Slide #1: "South Korean soldier at the demilitarized zone (DMZ)"

Where do you think this photo was taken?

Why is this man standing like this?

Would you want this man's job? Why or why not?

How does conflict affect this man's life?

What emotions is this man feeling?

Slide #2: "Two women pause among the ruins of Grozny, Chechnya"

Have you ever had to move to a new home against your will? How did you feel?

Where will these women go?

How do you think these buildings were destroyed?

What was the purpose of destroying these buildings?

What will happen to this place in the future?

In what ways does conflict affect innocent civilians?

Slide #3: "A boy stands in his ruined neighborhood in Sudan"

What is this boy holding?

What is this boy thinking about?

Was this boy a threat to the military?

How will the destruction of this boy's neighborhood affect his childhood?

handout #1e

Slide #4: "The United Nations airlifts wounded civilians from Gorazde to Sarajevo"

What can the United Nations do to help during conflicts?

What will happen to this woman?

Why was this woman wounded?

What is this woman's relationship to the violence?

Slide #5: "Angolan women maimed by land mines"

How did these women sustain these injuries?

From the expression on their faces, how do these women feel?

How will these women's war injuries affect their lives and their children?

What kind of people were the land mines intended to injure?

How many people do you think are injured by land mines per year?

Slide #6: "Mourners seek shelter during a sectarian attack at a funeral in Northern Ireland"

Do you usually feel safe during funerals?

Why are these people being attacked during a funeral ceremony?

Will these people be able to feel safe anywhere after this event?

Could this happen in the United States?

Slide #7: "Children wait in line for a physical examination"

Have you ever had to wait in line for a physical examination? How did you feel?

What health problems might these children have?

How do deadly conflicts create health problems?

What kind of health care is available for these children?

Can you name some organizations that provide food, medicine, or other assistance to people in areas of deadly conflict?

Slide #8: "Gun-toting girls in Lebanon"

Why are these girls holding guns?

Who gave these girls guns?

How will these girls try to resolve conflict in the future?

Could this happen in the United States?

Slide #9: "Riots in Los Angeles after the Rodney King verdict"

What were the causes of this conflict?

What kind of conflict was this?

Who suffered from this conflict?

Could this kind of conflict happen again?

Slide #10: "Killing rampage at Columbine High School"

What kind of conflict was this?

How did the Columbine students feel during this conflict?

How did this conflict affect the sense of safety of Columbine students?

How might this conflict continue to affect Columbine students?

How did this conflict affect you?

handout #1f

SHOULD THE UNITED STATES ACT TO PREVENT DEADLY CONFLICT?

At any given moment, there is violence in some corner of the world. As the world's most powerful country, the United States has the greatest potential—and some would say, therefore the greatest responsibility—to end such conflicts and to promote peace in the world. However, many people are unaware of conflicts occurring in areas far from the United States. Others are weary of caring about what happens in other countries. Yet there are several reasons given why the United States should attempt to end deadly conflicts in distant places. Below are five of these reasons.

Write your answers in the spaces below:

- Do you agree or disagree with each reason? Why? Support your argument, for or against, with any specific instances that have happened or could happen.

Reason #1: *"War or disorder impairs a country's economic development, so the United States may not be able to obtain the natural resources or products it needs from countries suffering from deadly conflict."*

Reason #2: *"War or disorder should be stopped in countries where the United States has a strategic interest because such conflicts would pose a threat to U.S. foreign policy goals."*

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Reason #3: *"Leaders who start wars or conflicts for little or no reason other than to expand their personal power should be stopped, otherwise they will cause even more trouble in the future."*

Reason #4: *"If one tyrannical leader commits atrocities without encountering any opposition from the international community, other tyrannical leaders will be encouraged to commit atrocities as well."*

Reason #5: *"If we can, we should try to stop war or conflict in other countries because innocent people are being injured and killed."*

Lesson Two

ANALYZING CONFLICT

Organizing Questions

- How do countries attempt to influence events in other countries?
- What are the advantages and disadvantages of intervention in foreign conflicts?

Introduction

In this lesson, students consider the topic of intervening in foreign conflicts by analyzing the 1992-1995 war in Bosnia. The outbreak of this brutal war raised important strategic and ethical questions worldwide about if and when intervention in foreign wars is justified, and what type of intervention is best. This war was also a chilling indication that the end of the Cold War did not mean the end of war in Europe. The conflict in Bosnia marked the first time that the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO), created to defend Western Europe against Soviet aggression, engaged in military action. Due to the importance of the war in Bosnia in focusing attention on these questions, and the pivotal role of the United States and various international organizations (NATO, the European Union, the United Nations) in ending the conflict, Bosnia was selected as the case study for this lesson.

In part one, students will first consider the concept of foreign policy. After reflecting on what foreign policy is and why it is used, students will learn five main tools of foreign policy. They will analyze one of the tools in a group and present a summary of the tool to the whole class. The class will then look at all five tools together and enumerate and discuss the advantages and disadvantages of each tool.

In part two, students will apply these tools to the 1992-1995 war in Bosnia. After reading a brief summary of the prelude to the war, the class will divide into ten groups. Five groups will assume the role of the United Nations; the other five will assume the role of the United States. Each group will consider if and how they should use one of the five foreign policy tools to end the war in Bosnia. After all groups present their conclusions to the class, students will compare their recommendations to the steps actually taken by the United Nations and the United States to end the war.

Objectives

knowledge

- to learn five tools of foreign policy
- to consider how these tools can be used in a specific situation
- to learn about the 1992-1995 war in Bosnia
- to understand the intervention efforts the United Nations and the United States made to end the war in Bosnia

- to consider the risks and benefits of different ways of responding to conflict

attitude

- to realize the complexity of resolving deadly conflict

skill

- to work effectively in small groups
- to effectively impart information through oral presentations
- to use tools and information to make complex situations more understandable and manageable

Materials

- Ten large pieces of poster board (one for each group)
- Pens and markers for posters
- Assorted magazines containing pictures of conflict
- Overhead projector
- Transparency #1, *Political Map of the Former Yugoslavia*
- Transparency #2, *Ethnic Map of the Former Yugoslavia*
- Teacher Information Card, *Discussion Topics*
- Handout #2A, *Control of Information*, two copies
- Handout #2B, *Diplomacy*, two copies
- Handout #2C, *Economic Instruments*, two copies
- Handout #2D, *International Organizations*, two copies
- Handout #2E, *Military Force*, two copies
- Handout #2F, *Comparing the Five Tools of Foreign Policy*, one copy per student
- Handout #2G, *Beginning of the War in Bosnia*, one copy per student
- Handout #2H, *Intervention Strategy Sheet: United Nations*, five copies
- Handout #2I, *Intervention Strategy Sheet: United States*, five copies
- Handout #2J, *Intervention Plan for the War in Bosnia*, one copy per student
- Handout #2K, *How the War in Bosnia Ended*, one copy per student

Procedure—Part One: The Five Tools of Foreign Policy

1. Start the lesson by asking students, "What are some ways that one country can influence events in other countries?"
2. Ask students for recent examples of one country trying to influence events in another country.
3. Divide the class into ten groups (or another multiple of five).
4. Give each group a copy of one of the five "tools of foreign policy" sheets, Handouts #2A-2E. Each group must read its handout thoroughly, then create a poster as explained in the Group Task portion of their handout. (Alternatively, groups may present the necessary information in the form of a Web page or a Powerpoint presentation.)
5. Distribute Handout #2F, *Comparing the Five Tools of Foreign Policy*, to each student.
6. Have each group present its foreign policy tool and poster to the class. Each student fills in the grid of Handout #2F, *Comparing the Five Tools of Foreign Policy*, while listening to the presentations of the groups.
7. Using some of the questions on Teacher Information Card, *Discussion Topics*, lead the class in a discussion on how these foreign policy tools relate to each other.
8. Distribute Handout #2G, *Beginning of the War in Bosnia*, to students. Instruct them to read this as homework.

Part Two: The Web of Conflict in Bosnia

1. Show Transparency #1, *Political Map of the Former Yugoslavia*. Ask students what they know about the conflict in Bosnia that waged from 1992-1995.
2. Students will probably be confused about the ethnic groups involved in the Bosnia conflict. Using Transparency #1, *Political Map of the Former Yugoslavia*, and Transparency #2, *Ethnic Map of the Former Yugoslavia*, clarify the geography and the groups involved in this conflict. Once you are satisfied that students understand who the ethnic groups in this conflict were and what their geographic location was, conclude this context-setting discussion.
3. Divide the class into ten groups. Give each group a copy of one of the two "Intervention Strategy" sheets, either Handout #2H or #2I.
4. Give each group 30 minutes to answer the questions on its sheet and prepare their intervention strategy.
5. Distribute Handout #2J, *Intervention Plan for the War in Bosnia*, to each student.

6. Call on each group to go to the front of the class and present its intervention strategy. Students must justify their reasoning. Other class members should fill in the appropriate boxes on Handout #2J, *Intervention Plan for the War in Bosnia*, as they listen to the group presentations.

7. Distribute Handout #2K, *How the War in Bosnia Ended*, to students. Instruct them to read this as homework.

8. The next day, discuss with students the relative effectiveness of different intervention strategies by asking the following questions:

   - How were the actions of the United Nations and the United States similar to what the class recommended?
   - Do you think that the intervention strategy of the United Nations and the United States was effective? In what areas was it effective and in what areas was it ineffective?
   - What are the strengths of the United Nations with regard to intervening in conflicts? What are the strengths of the United States?

9. (*Optional*) As an extension activity, divide the class into five groups. These groups will assume the roles of Bosnian Croats, Bosnian Muslims, Bosnian Serbs, the United Nations, and the United States. Have each group research what the position of these parties was in December 1993. Then have a Peace Treaty Summit called by the United Nations with the goal of ending the war in Bosnia. Put a time limit on this simulation, then ask the students to analyze why they could or could not reach an agreement on a peace treaty.

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POLITICAL MAP OF THE FORMER YUGOSLAVIA

The Federal People's Republic of Yugoslavia (1945-1991) covered the areas in white until Yugoslavia began to break up in 1991. There are now five countries where Yugoslavia once was: Slovenia, Croatia, Bosnia & Herzegovina, Macedonia, and the Federal Republic of Yugoslavia (also known as "Serbia and Montenegro"). Vojvodina and Kosovo are autonomous regions of Serbia.

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transparency #2

ETHNIC MAP OF THE FORMER YUGOSLAVIA

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Discussion Topics

Suggested questions for provoking discussion are found below, organized under the relevant tool of foreign policy. However, do not feel bound by this list; engage your students in any inquiry you feel is appropriate and worthwhile.

Control of Information

- What are some examples of a country using information to influence events in another country?
- Who controls information in your society?
- How can information be a powerful tool?
- Do you think that the information you have access to is always accurate?
- How can you be sure that you always receive objective information rather than misleading propaganda?
- Of the three ways to control information (listed on Handout #2A), which do you think is the most effective? Which is the most ethical? Which is the least ethical?
- What are the advantages and disadvantages of using information as a means of influence?

Diplomacy

- What are some examples of the use of diplomacy?
- What do you think of when you hear the word "diplomacy"?
- Why do nations have formal contacts with each other?
- What can nations do with these contacts?
- How can a country use diplomacy to influence another country?
- What are the advantages and disadvantages of diplomacy as a means of influence?

Economic Instruments

- What are some examples of economic punishments or rewards that the United States has used recently?
- When would it be best to use economic rewards versus economic punishments?
- How can economic punishments hurt other countries?
- Is the use of economic instruments an effective option?
- Why do many politicians like to impose sanctions?
- In what situations are economic means of influence most useful?
- What are the advantages and disadvantages of using economic instruments as a means of influence?

International Organizations

- What are some examples of international organizations influencing individual nations?
- How do international organizations differ from countries?
- Can you name some international organizations?
- How can international organizations influence events in sovereign nations?
- What are the limitations of international organizations?

teacher information card

- What kind of nations are most susceptible to being influenced by international organizations?
- What are the advantages and disadvantages of using membership in international organizations as a means of influence?

Military Force

- What are some examples of times when force has been used to prevent the outbreak or recurrence of major violence in another country?
- Is military force a useful tool of foreign policy? If so, what situations warrant the use of military force?
- What are some of the reasons countries have used military force against other countries?
- How can a country use military force to influence another country?
- What are the advantages and disadvantages of military force as a means of influence?

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CONTROL OF INFORMATION

Control of information—granting or denying access to information, or spreading false information in order to change other countries' policies—is a "tool of foreign policy."

Diplomats and leaders make their decisions based on the information available to them. Thus, the control of information plays a crucial role in foreign relations. The amount and validity of information diplomats and governments reveal can influence policy makers in other countries, as well as drastically change public opinion.

Countries can control information in three ways:

1) granting access to information
2) denying access to information
3) creating/spreading false information

Granting access to information

Countries that choose to give their residents and the world community access to all the facts may find that this access proves to have important consequences. For example, TV clips and photographs of combat in the Vietnam War were a factor in turning some Americans against U.S. involvement in that war. This anti-war sentiment may have limited U.S. efforts in Vietnam.

Being open about access to information can also work to a country's advantage. For example, if the United States releases news of a new military technology available to the U.S. military, other nations may be less likely to attack the United States.

Denying access to information

This tool is commonly used by governments to prevent their residents or the international community from learning about events or facts that cast a poor light upon their government. A common example is withholding information regarding the extent of wartime casualties. By not reporting the actual amount of casualties, governments may have an easier time keeping public opinion on their side. Were the truth revealed, many residents might rise up against the war.

Creating/spreading false information

This is what most people think of when they hear the word "propaganda." False information can be used to shape the attitudes of one's own citizens, as well as to change the nature of one country's relations with other countries. Spreading racial propaganda is a common use of false information. The violent anti-Muslim propaganda on Serbian radio and television in the early 1990s was a factor in making ethnic Serbs in Bosnia willing to fight Bosnian Muslims, leading to the war in Bosnia.

handout #2a

Group Task

Create a poster that will explain your group's "tool of foreign policy" to your classmates. Your poster must include:

- a symbol for your "tool of foreign policy"
- a list of the advantages and disadvantages of using this tool
- drawings or photos from magazines showing examples of the use of this tool
- a list of some instances when this tool was used
- situations in which your group thinks this tool would be most effective
- anything else you think will help your classmates to understand what this foreign policy tool is and how it is used

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DIPLOMACY

Diplomacy—efforts to influence other countries through peaceful interaction—is a "tool of foreign policy."

The word "diplomacy" conjures up images of ambassadors for most people. Along with other representatives of the state, ambassadors engage in dialogue with their peers in other countries in the hopes that they can work together and resolve their differences through conversation and set procedures for dealing with conflicts.

Diplomacy includes efforts to extend formal recognition to other countries and to establish formal contacts and negotiations with other countries. Nations that have formal contacts with each other may then sign treaties, form alliances, and promise to defend each other. These are ways in which diplomacy may be used to create a trusting, stable relationship with other countries and to prevent unnecessary conflict.

Diplomats may also meet in times of disagreement to discuss differences and find some way of resolving them before the situation becomes more serious or deadly. Examples include meetings held to write treaties and meetings held between ambassadors and foreign leaders to clarify each country's goals.

When one country has a dispute with another, diplomacy is usually employed as the first way to try to alleviate the situation. This is because diplomacy is cheap, can be done on an ongoing basis, and is a "friendly" (non-hostile) form of intervention. Additionally, diplomatic efforts usually cause no harm to people in either country. Since any form of communication between two countries can increase the information they have about each other and reduce uncertainty, diplomatic encounters can build trust between nations.

Unfortunately, diplomacy is often very time-consuming. Recent agreements between Israel and Palestinians have taken weeks—even months—to achieve. In addition, if the other side is unwilling to listen, diplomatic encounters will have little or no effect. It is thus important that countries continue to develop more creative channels for communication.

There are several examples of recent diplomatic efforts. These include:

- The United States and Russia signing a nuclear arms reduction treaty.
- The European Community recognizing the sovereignty of Slovenia.
- Japan renewing its security treaty with the United States.
- The 1995 Dayton Peace Accords, which ended the war in Bosnia. Representatives from the three parties in the civil war—Bosnian Serbs, Croats, and Muslims—agreed to end the war with the help of diplomats from other countries. Twenty-one days of negotiations produced the peace agreement and ended three years of war.

handout #2b

Group Task

Create a poster that will explain your group's "tool of foreign policy" to your classmates. Your poster must include:

- a symbol for your "tool of foreign policy"
- a list of the advantages and disadvantages of using this tool
- drawings or photos from magazines showing examples of the use of this tool
- a list of some instances when this tool was used
- situations in which your group thinks this tool would be most effective
- anything else you think will help your classmates to understand what this foreign policy tool is and how it is used

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ECONOMIC INSTRUMENTS

The use of economic rewards or punishments to change the policy of the targeted country is a "tool of foreign policy."

The use of economic instruments to put pressure on other countries can be effective because many countries depend on trade to improve their standard of living. If wealthy countries give more aid or trade privileges to poorer, smaller countries, conditions in those countries can improve. On the other hand, if rich countries stop trading with poorer countries or deny economic benefits to them, the poorer countries may fall into worse poverty. Thus, many leaders of poorer countries may be persuaded to change their policies based on economic rewards or punishments imposed by influential countries.

Economic instruments can be divided into two categories: rewards and punishments.

Rewards

Rewards involve offering something of value (e.g., money, goods, or services) to a country that wants such items. Rewards may include foreign aid (money provided by wealthy countries in the form of military aid, economic aid, cash loans, or equipment), the establishment of trade relations, or the development of trade agreements to increase trade between two or more countries.

Some examples of economic aid include:

- The United States selling military equipment to Indonesia.
- The United States sending food to Somalia to fight famine.
- The United States signing an agreement to allow trade with Vietnam.

Economic rewards are a positive gesture, but they are not always very forceful. Also, sometimes the aid given (e.g., money, food, or services) goes to wrongdoers rather than the general populace. Much of the food aid granted to North Korea by various donor countries in the early 1990s was hoarded by the North Korean military rather than given to the poorer, starving segments of the population.

If the aid or other rewards are targeted to specific groups, the aid may help bring about long-term changes for the better in the targeted country. For example, giving money and advice to aid the education of women in developing countries has proven to reduce the infant mortality rate and improve general health in these societies.

Punishments

Punishments are actions that limit or deny access to a country's money and goods in response to an action the targeted country has taken. Punishments are often considered hostile.

Economic punishments include boycotts, sanctions, and restrictions on trade such as tariffs on imported goods.

handout #2c

Sanctions are a common way for countries to express their displeasure with the actions of other countries. By using sanctions, a country can clearly signal its concern over the targeted country's behavior. An economic sanction is an action taken to harm another country's economy by restricting economic exchange with that country. It is a forceful statement that can serve as a prelude to stronger actions (such as the use of military force) and may persuade the leaders of the targeted country to rethink their actions. Several forms of sanctions exist. Countries may refuse to send goods to another country. For example, the United States stopped selling high-powered computers to China after it was suspected that China was stealing U.S. military technology.

A boycott is another type of sanction. A boycott is a decision by a country to abstain from buying goods or services from another country. For example, after India tested its first nuclear weapon, Japan boycotted (stopped buying) goods made in India.

However, there are many problems with sanctions. Boycotts often hurt the poorest people in the targeted country, who are deprived of goods and are usually the first to lose jobs. Sanctions also are costly to put into effect, and produce slow results, if any.

Group Task

Create a poster that will explain your group's "tool of foreign policy" to your classmates. Your poster must include:

- a symbol for your "tool of foreign policy"
- a list of the advantages and disadvantages of using this tool
- drawings or photos from magazines showing examples of the use of this tool
- a list of some instances when this tool was used
- situations in which your group thinks this tool would be most effective
- anything else you think will help your classmates to understand what this foreign policy tool is and how it is used

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INTERNATIONAL ORGANIZATIONS

The use of membership in international organizations to pressure other countries to change is a "tool of foreign policy."

"International organizations" are organizations consisting of representatives from several countries who agree to work together for a certain cause. These organizations are limited by their members, who each have their own ideas and goals. International organizations can do only what their members allow them to do. Larger countries or countries contributing more resources are often more influential, so their opinions are generally granted more weight. Thus, countries—especially rich, large countries—can use their membership in international organizations to put pressure on other countries or to call attention to topics that are important to them.

Since the United States is one of the most powerful United Nations (UN) members, it can influence what the UN says and does. However, when much of the world holds a different opinion from the United States, other nations can prevail over the U.S. opinion. The UN's ability to balance all countries' interests makes it the most credible forum for gauging international opinion on global issues and acting on these issues.

As the most important international organization, the UN serves as a focal point for world dialogue and collective security and peacekeeping programs. Most nations of the world are UN members, making it the most representative international body. If the UN condemns the actions of a country, that country will feel strong pressure to change its ways.

One of the UN's purposes is the prevention and resolution of war, and it can often command the resources necessary for effective peacekeeping missions or even active military operations. The UN can authorize the use of force in rare situations. For example, when North Korea invaded South Korea in 1950, the UN approved the use of force to stop the North Koreans from conquering South Korea. In the 1990s, the UN has played a key role in trying to end violent conflict in Cambodia, Bosnia, Iraq, and Somalia.

Other types of international organizations include international financial institutions, security organizations, economic organizations, and dialogue and cooperation groups.

International financial institutions, such as the World Bank and the International Monetary Fund (IMF), lend money and recommend economic policies to needy countries.

Security organizations, such as the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO), attempt to protect member countries from outside attack.

Economic organizations, such as the European Union (EU) and the North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA), promote trade within their regions.

Dialogue and cooperation groups, such as the Nonaligned Movement and the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN), exist to pool resources in the pursuit of common interests.

handout #2d

Group Task

Create a poster that will explain your group's "tool of foreign policy" to your classmates. Your poster must include:

- a symbol for your "tool of foreign policy"
- a list of the advantages and disadvantages of using this tool
- drawings or photos from magazines showing examples of the use of this tool
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MILITARY FORCE

Military force—the use of destruction of people or property to influence other states—is a "tool of foreign policy."

Since the use of military force involves serious risks, it is often used as a last resort in international disputes. Military force is not limited to acts of war. Shows of strength and limited responses to aggression are less extreme uses of military force. Countries put on shows of strength—displays of military might—in order to scare other countries or make them aware that they are prepared to fight. When China launched missiles near Taiwan in 1996, the United States moved its aircraft carriers into the strait between Taiwan and China. This move signaled to China that the United States would protect Taiwan, and may have made Chinese leaders back off from using military force in Taiwan.

Limited responses to aggression are actions that cause destruction, but fall short of full battle. These might include dropping a singular bomb on the targeted country or assembling troops for battle without actually having them fire.

During 1994 in Rwanda, ethnic Hutus engaged in systematic, bloody genocide against the Tutsi ethnic group. The leader of the United Nations Assistance Mission for Rwanda believes that a force of 5,000 United Nations (UN) troops could have prevented this mass violence. This would have been an act of deterrence: the UN forces would have discouraged the Hutus from unleashing their campaign of terror. Many people believe that in such situations where deterrence may prevent war, the use of military force is justified.

The use of military force is a serious decision, and should be approached with extreme caution. Military force is clearly the most aggressive foreign policy tool. It is also the most likely to elicit a response from the targeted country. However, military force may not be necessary to make other countries respond to one country's demands. It is far less costly and risky to pursue other methods of dialogue and persuasion. Also, in any military endeavor, there is great danger of killing non-combatants and destroying buildings and resources needed by civilians.

Some experts believe that countries should use force only to prevent the outbreak or recurrence of major violence, and that force should be used only as a last resort when all other attempts to prevent violence have failed. Others believe that countries should not use force against other countries unless the UN authorizes such action, as it did against Iraq in 1991. Still others claim that no matter what the situation, it is wrong for one country to destroy people or property in another country; military force should never be used. Even in cases where the UN authorizes a military campaign of many countries against a country that has violated UN norms, the use of force is highly controversial.

handout #2e

Group Task

Create a poster that will explain your group's "tool of foreign policy" to your classmates. Your poster must include:

- a symbol for your "tool of foreign policy"
- a list of the advantages and disadvantages of using this tool
- drawings or photos from magazines showing examples of the use of this tool
- a list of some instances when this tool was used
- situations in which your group thinks this tool would be most effective
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handout #2f

Comparing the Five Tools of Foreign Policy

Tool	Advantages	Disadvantages
Control of Information		
Diplomacy		
Economic Instruments		
International Organizations		
Military Force		

handout #2g

BEGINNING OF THE WAR IN BOSNIA

The Republic of Bosnia and Herzegovina (the full name of the state usually referred to simply as "Bosnia") is located in southeastern Europe. It was one of the six republics of the Federal People's Republic of Yugoslavia until that country broke up in 1991. Bosnia is now surrounded by three of those former republics: Croatia, Serbia, and Montenegro (Serbia and Montenegro comprise the Federal Republic of Yugoslavia). Bosnia is about the size of West Virginia, and had a pre-war population of 4.3 million. Mountains and hills dominate the geography, and forest covers half the land.

Most people in the former Yugoslavia are descendants of Slavic tribes that entered the region in the sixth century AD. In fact, the word "Yugoslavia" means "land of the southern Slavs." Over time, various branches of the southern Slav ethnic group emerged. For example, while sharing a common language and Slavic background, most Bosnians also identify themselves as Croat (mostly Roman Catholic in faith), Serb (mostly Eastern Orthodox), or Muslim. (Note: In post-World War II Bosnia, "Muslim" is considered a nationality, and does not necessarily imply active practice of Islam.)

While Croats were the majority in Croatia and Serbs were the majority in Serbia, Bosnia was the only Yugoslav republic with no majority ethnic group. Bosnian Muslims comprised 44 percent of Bosnia's population in 1991, ethnic Serbs 31 percent, and ethnic Croats 17 percent. Six percent of the population described themselves as "Yugoslavs" because they were of mixed ethnicity or for other reasons. Although separate Muslim, Serb, and Croat identities have been a source of discord in Bosnia, relations were in fact often harmonious. Before the 1992-1995 war, one-third of all urban marriages were between couples from different religious and ethnic backgrounds..

The Bosnian state was established as a political entity for the first time in the late 1100s. The Islamic Ottoman Empire conquered Bosnia in the mid-1400s, and ruled it as a province of the empire. Some Bosnian citizens converted to Islam over the five hundred years of Ottoman rule, and became known as Bosnian Muslims. Due to its location at the border of the Ottoman Empire and the Hapsburg (Austro-Hungarian) Empire, Bosnia was the site of periodic territorial battles between these two great powers.

In 1878, Bosnia was occupied by the Austro-Hungarian empire and was subject to Western influence. After World War I, the Allied powers created a new country called Yugoslavia, uniting the southern Slavs in one state for the first time. This Yugoslavia had roughly the same area as the post-World War II Yugoslavia. Due to its location at the intersection of different empires in the past, Yugoslavia was a multiethnic state.

World War II brought brutal war to Yugoslavia. The Germans and Italians conquered the area in 1941 and divided the country into German and Italian zones of occupation, but faced sustained and bitter opposition from 1941 until 1945. Croatia was declared independent and was enlarged to include most of Bosnia. The Ustasha, a fascist group of Croats who were actually puppets of Germany and Italy, ruled Croatia. Their goal was to convert Serbs (who were mostly Eastern Orthodox) and others to Catholicism. The Ustasha established concentration camps and

engaged in genocide against Jews, Gypsies, and especially Serbs. In response, Colonel Draza Mihailovic formed a Serb royalist group called the Chetniks to fight the Ustasha and the occupying forces. A third group, the Partisan movement headed by Josip Broz Tito, fought for a communist, unified Yugoslavia and gained support from all religious and ethnic groups. A protracted war ensued between all three groups. In the end, the Partisans defeated the occupying forces as well as the Ustasha and the Chetniks. Tito emerged as a war hero, and established the Federal People's Republic of Yugoslavia. This Yugoslavia was nearly identical in area to the first Yugoslavia, and comprised six republics, Bosnia being one of them.

Tito ruled Yugoslavia from its establishment in 1945 until his death in 1980. Although a communist country, Yugoslavia broke away from the USSR-dominated communist bloc in 1948 and was neutral in world affairs. Calls for more autonomy by various ethnic groups and republics emerged, but Tito maintained Yugoslavia's unity by granting the republics more rights in certain areas while strategically suppressing larger independence movements. In order to prevent Serbia from becoming too dominant, he created the "autonomous regions" of Vojvodina and Kosovo within the Republic of Serbia. After his death, however, no strong leader emerged to keep Yugoslavia together.

The 1980s were a difficult decade for Yugoslavia, and economic and political problems led to the country's breakup in 1991. High levels of inflation in the 1980s and government cutbacks contributed to a decreasing standard of living. These economic problems led Slovenia and Croatia, the richer republics, to wonder whether they could do better on their own. Simultaneously, the republics took more power from the central Yugoslavian government, and nationalism began to exert a powerful force on politics. Without someone like Tito pushing for the unity of Yugoslavia, the ties between the six republics began to break. Serbian President Slobodan Milosevic made matters worse by encouraging Serbian nationalism and revoking the autonomous status of Kosovo in a general crackdown on that region. This Serbian aggressiveness created fear in the other republics, where many believed that Serbia was becoming too dominant within Yugoslavia.

Slovenia and Croatia declared independence from Yugoslavia in June 1991. The Yugoslav National Army (JNA) fought to keep these two republics part of Yugoslavia. The war in Slovenia ended rather quickly with Slovenia victorious. The war in Croatia was much more vicious and protracted because there were many ethnic Serbs in Croatia who felt they would receive inferior treatment in a Croatian nation. Thus, the ethnic Serbs in Croatia, aided by the JNA, fought to establish their own separate country. The United Nations (UN) and the European Community (EC) arranged a cease-fire in November 1991, ending the bloody war.

With Slovenia and Croatia independent, Bosnia was in a very difficult position. If Bosnia remained a part of Yugoslavia, it would be dominated by Serbia and subject to the policies of Serbian President Slobodan Milosevic, who was clearly pro-Serb. However, most of Bosnia's Serbs wanted to remain part of Yugoslavia. They feared inferior treatment in a Muslim- and Croat-controlled Bosnia. War would probably erupt in Bosnia if independence were declared, especially after the cease-fire in Croatia left the JNA free to fight in Bosnia.

At first, the EC and the United States preferred a unified Yugoslavia amid all the changes accompanying the end of the Cold War. After Yugoslavia began to break up in 1991 and war broke out in Slovenia and Croatia, however, the stances of the major powers changed. The EC recognized Slovenia and Croatia as

independent countries on January 15, 1992. This recognition gave Bosnia hope that it too could break away from Yugoslavia and feared Serbian domination. Bosnia hoped that the international community would recognize it as independent and would provide protection in the case of war.

In February 1992, Bosnians voted on whether to remain part of Yugoslavia or declare independence. With Bosnian Croats and Muslims voting for independence and the Bosnian Serbs boycotting the election, 99.4 percent of the votes were pro-independence. Despite the Bosnian Serbs' boycott of the independence vote, the United States and the EC recognized Bosnia as an independent country on April 6, 1992. A plan to reinvent Bosnia as a country consisting of three different ethnically based units was proposed in March 1992, but Bosnian President Izetbegovic rejected this plan. He hoped to preserve Bosnia as a multiethnic state after independence. However, calls for a "Greater Serbia" (a country containing all areas where ethnic Serbs lived) and a "Greater Croatia" (a country containing all areas where ethnic Croats lived) had influenced ethnic Croats and Serbs in Bosnia. Both groups felt that they would be dominated by other ethnic groups, and in their fear the Serbs looked to the remainder of Yugoslavia (dominated by Serbia) and the Croats looked to the newly created Croatia for protection. Bosnian Serbs did not want to live in a Bosnia dominated by Muslims and Croats, and declared a separate "Serbian Republic of Bosnia-Herzegovina" on March 27, 1992. Widespread fighting between Bosnian Serb forces and the Bosnian government began in April 1992.

The Bosnian Serbs had the backing of the Yugoslav government as well as large amounts of troops and weapons that had formerly been part of the JNA. By contrast, the Bosnian government forces (composed of Bosnian Croats, Muslims, and a small number of Serbs) were ill-prepared for war and had fewer weapons. In the early fighting, the Bosnian Serbs easily defeated the Bosnian government forces largely because they had access to the heavy weaponry left behind by the JNA. They attempted to create a unified area of Serbs that would connect western Croatia to Serbia in an arc over northern Bosnia. To do so, the Bosnian Serbs engaged in "ethnic cleansing," removing all non-Serbs in certain areas so that only Serbs remained. They typically harassed local residents (usually Muslims) until these people fled. Those who remained despite the terror tactics would be tortured, mutilated, placed in concentration camps, or killed. This was the first case of genocide in Europe since Hitler had implemented similar policies against Jews, Gypsies, and other groups in World War II.

By late summer of 1992, the Western media began to report the "ethnic cleansing" and genocide occurring in Bosnia. There was a huge refugee problem as people left their homes in fear of their lives. By November 1992, 1.5 million people (a third of Bosnia's population) had been displaced from their homes. In the face of such brutalities, the international community felt compelled to take action to end the terrors of the war.

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INTERVENTION STRATEGY SHEET: UNITED NATIONS

(FALL 1992)

Today, nearly every nation in the world belongs to the United Nations (UN)—188 countries in all. UN members are sovereign countries. The UN is not a world government, and it does not make laws. It does, however, provide the means to help resolve international conflict and formulate policies on matters affecting all humans. All UN member states have a voice and vote in this process.

The most important UN organ is the Security Council. This is a group composed of fifteen member countries. Five are permanent members: China, France, the Russian Federation, the United Kingdom, and the United States. The Security Council is charged with maintaining international peace and security, and may take various measures—ranging from economic sanctions to collective military action—to enforce its decisions. However, the UN very rarely uses military force because it opposes violence as a way of settling conflict, and UN peacekeepers and aid workers may be injured in attacks. Also, Security Council members rarely agree to permit the use of military force.

When war broke out in Slovenia and Croatia in 1991, the UN banned weapons shipments to all areas of Yugoslavia. After the cease-fire in Croatia was negotiated, the UN sent forces to Croatia to keep fighting from breaking out anew. This unit was called the UN Protection Force, or UNPROFOR.

When Bosnian Serbs attacked Bosnian government forces in April 1992, the Bosnian government asked the UN for help. The UN responded by recognizing Bosnia on May 22. The Security Council then placed economic sanctions on Serbia (also called the Former Republic of Yugoslavia) on May 30, 1992 because of Serbia's support of Bosnian Serb forces. The UN mainly dealt with the humanitarian problems the war created, providing housing and food for refugees and healing the wounded. In August 1992, the UN expelled Serbia for its continued violation of UN orders.

In the same month, after discovering that Bosnian Serbs blocked several efforts to provide humanitarian aid, the Security Council asked UN members to use all means necessary to make sure that aid reached the proper recipients. This mandate included military force, but no member country was willing to enforce this UN resolution. The UN had hoped the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO) would support its efforts in Bosnia. NATO—an alliance of several European countries, Canada, and the United States—possessed the military means to enforce UN resolutions. When it became clear that NATO didn't want to get involved in Bosnia, the UN assumed prime responsibility for dealing with the conflict.

In September 1992, the UN teamed up with the European Community (EC) for a conference on ending the fighting. UN and EC diplomats tried to negotiate cease-fires in Bosnia, and the UN and EC established a "no-fly zone" over Bosnia in an effort to keep Bosnian Serb and Serbian aircraft out of the fighting. The UN sent 6,000 UNPROFOR troops to Bosnia in November, but these troops were not allowed to defend themselves or local inhabitants. None of these efforts deterred the Bosnian Serbs from attacking civilians, and the fighting continued unabated.

handout #2h

Group Task

As a special committee of the UN Security Council, you are charged with deciding how the United Nations should use the foreign policy tool you introduced earlier to influence the worsening situation in Bosnia. Keep in mind the constraints on your actions—especially constraints on what the UN is allowed to do in Bosnia and the difficulty of securing the agreement of all UN member states—as you answer the following questions:

1) What outcome should the United Nations try to bring about in Bosnia?
2) Can this tool be used effectively to minimize or end the war in Bosnia?
3) What are some of the possible ways the United Nations can apply this tool in Bosnia?
4) How does your committee recommend the United Nations use this tool to influence the situation in Bosnia?
5) What are the weaknesses and strengths of this recommended course of action?

Please be as specific as possible, and give each committee member a chance to speak when you present your intervention strategy.

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INTERVENTION STRATEGY SHEET: UNITED STATES

(FALL 1992)

With the end of the Cold War and the subsequent breakup of the Soviet Union, the United States has emerged as the lone global superpower. Its unrivaled economic, military, and political might allow the United States to intervene decisively in conflicts around the world. However, the American public is firmly opposed to placing U.S. ground troops in dangerous areas unless vital U.S. interests are at risk.

During the Cold War, Yugoslavia had been a strategically important country for the United States, because it was one of the few eastern European countries not allied with the USSR. With the Cold War over, Yugoslavia lost its importance to U.S. policymakers, who were busy reevaluating the new role the United States should play as the world's superpower.

When the United States realized that Yugoslavia was on the verge of collapse in 1991, U.S. officials hoped that Yugoslavia would stay unified. After Slovenia and Croatia broke away from Yugoslavia in 1991, U.S. policymakers changed their mind and declared that all Yugoslav republics should have the option of becoming independent. Thus, after the Muslims and Croats in Bosnia voted for independence, the United States recognized Bosnia on April 6, 1992.

When war broke out in Bosnia, the United States was not willing to help the newly independent country. One reason was that the European Community (EC) had claimed prime responsibility for bringing peace to the Balkans. The EC had led diplomatic efforts to end the fighting in Slovenia and Croatia in 1991. With the EC taking the lead in the Balkan region in the initial stages, the United States was content to wait and see if the Europeans could contain the war in Bosnia themselves.

After reports in late summer of 1992 of Bosnian Serbs engaging in attacks on civilians, "ethnic cleansing," and genocide, the war in Bosnia became impossible to ignore. Although Bosnia was the dominant defense and security problem in Europe, U.S. military leaders didn't want to send troops into an area where no national interests were at stake, fearing another "Vietnam." Television scenes of the death and atrocities in Bosnia led to public calls for some type of intervention, but most Americans didn't believe that military involvement was necessary to bring peace. The United States supported humanitarian aid to refugees and victims, but seemed very reluctant to further involve itself in the war in Bosnia.

handout #2i

Group Task

As a special State Department committee, you are charged with deciding how the United States should use the foreign policy tool you introduced earlier to influence the worsening situation in Bosnia. Keep in mind domestic and international constraints on your actions as you answer the following questions:

1) What outcome should the United States try to bring about in Bosnia?
2) Can this tool be used effectively to minimize or end the war in Bosnia?
3) What are some of the possible ways the United States can apply this tool in Bosnia?
4) How does your committee recommend the United States use this tool to influence the situation in Bosnia?
5) What are the weaknesses and strengths of this recommended course of action?

Please be as specific as possible, and give each committee member a chance to speak when you present your intervention strategy.

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handout #2j

Intervention Plan for the War in Bosnia

Tool	United Nations	United States
Control of Information		
Diplomacy		
Economic Instruments		
International Organizations		
Military Force		

handout #2k

How the War in Bosnia Ended

Summary of International Response to the Conflicts in Yugoslavia

When the media began to report on instances of "ethnic cleansing" and concentration camps in Bosnia in the summer of 1992, calls for intervention were heard worldwide. The United Nations (UN) and the major Western powers saw the Bosnian Serbs as the main aggressors, and placed economic sanctions on Serbia-Montenegro in an effort to discourage Serbia and the Yugoslav National Army (JNA) from aiding the Bosnian Serbs. The North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO) approved action in Yugoslavia in June 1992, but did not engage in military operations until March 1994. The European Community (EC) offered to take the lead in bringing peace to the region and organized a joint conference with the UN in September. This conference produced several demands on the Bosnian Serbs, but the Bosnian Serbs ignored these demands. The UN took action in October 1992, establishing a "no-fly zone" over Bosnia (to prevent Yugoslav planes from attacking Bosnian government areas), and sending 6,000 UN peacekeeping troops to Bosnia. These troops were sent to maintain order, but were prohibited from becoming involved in the fighting. In addition, the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) provided humanitarian aid such as meals, tents, and health care for the refugees. The UN also passed a resolution in July 1993 establishing Sarajevo and five other cities in Yugoslavia as "safe areas," which would be free from attack provided that weapons be removed from the cities. Bosnians could supposedly flee to these cities for safety, but the UN did not adequately protect these civilians or rid the areas of weapons.

By late 1992, Bosnian Serbs controlled about 70 percent of Bosnia. The UN and EC supported diplomatic efforts to end the war, but no country or international organization was willing to intervene militarily in Bosnia. Diplomats from the UN and EC produced the Vance-Owen Plan, which split Bosnia into ten different provinces, each ruled by a multinational government. This was an attempt to retain Bosnia's multiethnic nature, but the Bosnian Serbs were unwilling to give back the land they had captured, and rejected the plan.

After the failure of the Vance-Owen Plan, the Bosnian Croats broke their alliance with the Bosnian Muslims and began to fight them. The Bosnian Croats wanted to establish their own independent republic in western Bosnia, and engaged in their own campaign of "ethnic cleansing" against Serbs and Muslims in that region. Thus, there were three warring parties in 1993: the Bosnian Croats, the Bosnian Serbs, and the Bosnian army (consisting mostly of Muslims). The Bosnian Croats made huge gains in territory at first in their fighting against the Bosnian government, but by the end of 1993 the Bosnian army had turned the tide.

Another peace plan, the Owen-Stoltenberg Plan, was devised in July 1993. This plan split Bosnia into three units based on ethnicity. The Bosnian Muslims decided that the 30 percent of Bosnia's territory they were given in this plan was not enough and rejected the plan.

The Bosnian Serb shelling of a Sarajevo marketplace in February 1994 marked a major turning point in the war. This violation of the UN "safe areas" resolution was filmed by ABC television crews and roused the international community to action. As a result, NATO started bombing Bosnian Serb military targets in March 1994. At the same time, the United States got actively involved and began intense diplomatic efforts to end the fighting.

First, the United States established the "Contact Group" to coordinate diplomatic efforts among the major powers. This group consisted of the United States, France, Germany, Russia, and the United Kingdom. Second, the United States helped negotiate a peace settlement between the Bosnian Croats and the Bosnian Muslims, allying them with Croatia in an effort to match their military might against the still-overpowering Bosnian Serb forces. Lastly, the United States offered to end economic sanctions on Serbia if Serbian President Milosevic ended his support for the Bosnian Serbs. Serbia complied and even placed its own embargo on trade with the Bosnian Serbs in an attempt to pressure them to accept a peace plan.

Despite these efforts, the war raged on. A Contact Group Plan for peace was formed in July 1994. This plan split the country into two parts, one controlled by Bosnian Serbs, and the other by the Croat-Muslim Federation. However, the Serbs still did not want to give up the territory they had gained and did not believe that the international community had the will to enforce the plan's provisions. They rejected the peace plan and kept fighting.

Several developments in 1995 turned the tide of the war and brought an enforced peace to Bosnia. First, the United States ended its arms embargo of Bosnia in April 1995, allowing the Bosnian army to gather more weapons.

Second, NATO began to bomb Bosnian Serb targets heavily. Until the summer of 1995, NATO had only conducted rather light bombing runs against the Bosnian Serbs. In July 1995, the Bosnian Serbs shocked the world by seizing the "safe area" of Srebrenica, in flagrant violation of UN regulations. In front of TV cameras, the Bosnian Serb forces led the captured men and boys away (presumably most of them were killed) and expelled all other residents. The slaughter at Srebrenica was the worst war crime in Europe since World War II. In addition, the Bosnian Serbs took about 370 UN soldiers hostage. After another "safe area" was captured, NATO responded to these hostile acts by increasing its bombing campaign against Bosnian Serb areas and defending other designated "safe areas" against Bosnian Serb attack. Heavy bombing of Bosnian Serb forces near Sarajevo forced the Bosnian Serbs to withdraw from the capital in September, allowing the Bosnian army to gain ground.

Third, the Croatian army joined the fighting on the Croat-Muslim side in late summer 1995. These combined armies drove Bosnian Serb forces out of western Bosnia, reducing the area of Bosnia held by the Bosnian Serbs from 70 percent to 50 percent.

Lastly, diplomatic efforts to end the war heated up. The United States led the way, and all Contact Group members participated in trying to hammer out an acceptable peace agreement. The changing military situation led to several defeats for the Bosnian Serbs, who decided it was time to stop fighting. On September 8, 1995, all warring parties agreed to enter peace talks, and the fighting finally ended.

From November 1 to November 21, peace talks were held at an air force base in Dayton, Ohio. Bosnian, Croatian, and Serbian government representatives joined the U.S.-organized deliberations. The Croatian government negotiated on behalf of

the Bosnian Croats, and the Serbian government represented the interests of the Bosnian Serbs. The agreement, called the Dayton Peace Accords, made Bosnia a country composed of two entities: the Serbian Republic, covering 49 percent of Bosnia's area, and the Croat- and Muslim-controlled Federation of Bosnia and Herzegovina, covering the other 51 percent of Bosnia's area. There was a central government and a presidency for the entire Republic of Bosnia and Herzegovina, but both entities were allowed to elect their own officials and to form ties with other countries. While the agreement brought peace to Bosnia, Bosnia's multiethnic nature had largely been lost: the country was now divided along ethnic lines.

NATO troops, under the name Implementation Force (IFOR), arrived in Bosnia in December 1995 and proceeded to separate the combatants and their weapons. As of early 2000, elections had been held and peace prevailed. However, many fear that Croatia and Serbia will each attempt to take half of Bosnia after the NATO peacekeepers leave. Another possibility is that the country will split into two or three small nations. Although Bosnia had existed as a political entity for hundreds of years, the four years of war created feelings of nationalism and hatred that will prove difficult for the different ethnic groups within Bosnia to overcome.

Map of Bosnia after the Dayton Peace Accords (November 1995)

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Lesson Three

How Might Recent Conflicts Have Been Prevented?

Organizing Questions

- Are there any patterns or similarities among recent deadly conflicts in the world?
- What factors are most essential in preventing deadly conflict?

Introduction

In 1997, there were no significant interstate wars; and of the roughly 180 wars from 1945 to 1999, 160 can be described as civil wars: wars between groups within the boundaries of a country. However, a quick review of major conflicts in the 1990s will reveal that war has not been eradicated; it has merely shifted from the interstate to the intrastate level.

Though the United States has intervened in several conflicts in the 1990s, most conflicts occurred in remote areas unfamiliar to most Americans. Perhaps many Americans heard news about events in Kosovo, Somalia, Bosnia, East Timor, and Kashmir without ever really knowing what the wars were about or even who was fighting whom. In this lesson, students are assigned a recent conflict to investigate as a group. Using summary sheets of recent conflicts and their own research, the groups are responsible for explaining these conflicts to their classmates, analyzing the reasons why the parties in conflict were fighting, and offering solutions to how these conflicts might have been avoided before they became deadly. After all groups have presented, the class will see if they can derive some of the essential factors for preventing deadly conflict by comparing all the conflicts they have analyzed.

Objectives

knowledge

- to understand several prominent conflicts waged in the 1990s

attitude

- to approach conflicts in an open and cooperative manner
- to be sensitive to the multiple points of view involved in conflicts

skill

- to apply tools of foreign policy in a prescriptive manner
- to research a topic competently
- to work effectively in small groups
- to make effective oral presentations

lesson three

Materials

- Large world map
- Teacher Information Card, *List of Recent Conflicts*
- Handout #3A, *Cambodia*, 3-4 copies
- Handout #3B, *East Timor*, 3-4 copies
- Handout #3C, *Haiti*, 3-4 copies
- Handout #3D, *Kashmir*, 3-4 copies
- Handout #3E, *Kosovo*, 3-4 copies
- Handout #3F, *Northern Ireland*, 3-4 copies
- Handout #3G, *The Persian Gulf (Iraq)*, 3-4 copies
- Handout #3H, *Peru*, 3-4 copies
- Handout #3I, *Rwanda*, 3-4 copies
- Handout #3J, *Somalia*, 3-4 copies
- Handout #3K, *Recent Conflicts Comparison Chart*, one copy per student

Procedure

1. Divide the class into groups of three to four students.
2. Assign each group one of the ten conflicts listed on the Teacher Information Card, *List of Recent Conflicts*. Alternatively, groups may choose a conflict to research on their own.
3. Distribute the appropriate handout, #3A-3J, to each student per group. Groups should read their handout, carry out research for one or two class periods, and then give presentations. The presentations should take two class periods.
4. Leave students to do their research, answering any questions that arise. Encourage students to use all available resources (the library, their textbooks, the Internet, in-class books, etc.) in their research.
5. After the allotted research time, distribute Handout #3K, *Recent Conflicts Comparison Chart*, to each student. Instruct students to fill in this chart as they listen to the presentations of their classmates.

6. Begin the group presentations. Enforce a ten-minute time limit, as well as the provision that each group member must be involved in the presentation. Encourage students to ask questions of the presenting groups.
7. After all presentations are done, collect Handout #3K, *Recent Conflicts Comparison Chart*, from each student. Be sure they have written their name on their handout. This handout, along with an evaluation of the group presentations, can be used to assess students' achievement in this lesson.

8. At the next class period, return Handout #3K, *Recent Conflicts Comparison Chart*, to the students. Ask them, "Based on this chart, what are the common causes of conflict?" Write their answers on the board. Inform students that their research indicates that these answers are the most common causes of conflict. This is an example of how social scientists devise theories. Social scientists look at events in several countries and compare characteristics (political, economic, ethnic, etc.) of these countries with events that happen there. Using these common causes of conflict, social scientists might be able to make predictions about where conflict might occur next. Ask students why such a skill might be useful. Ask students if they can use these criteria to predict in which areas of the world conflict might occur next.

9. Ask the class to list some of the most common suggestions given for preventing future conflict during their presentations. Write their answers on the board. From this list, derive the necessary components of an effective conflict prevention plan.

10. Distribute Handout #1B, *Political World Map*, to each group (this handout was used in Lesson One). In Lesson One, students were asked to label on this handout all the deadly conflicts in the 1990s they knew about. Ask them to do so again as a means of assessing how much they learned over the course of the curriculum module.

Assessment

Assign students an argumentative essay in response to the question, "How can deadly conflict be predicted and what are the necessary components of a plan to prevent such conflict?" Evaluate these essays to determine how much students have learned about creating theories from a number of case studies, and how well they have synthesized the information on conflict prevention.

teacher information card

List of Recent Conflicts

Conflict Area	Type of Conflict	Important Characteristics
A) Cambodia	Political power struggle	Involvement of foreign powers
B) East Timor	Separatism/self-determination	Citizens voted on political future
C) Haiti	Political power struggle	U.S.-led intervention effort
D) Kashmir	Territorial/religious	Focal point of conflict between two nuclear powers
E) Kosovo	Ethnic/religious	NATO intervened despite lack of UN approval
F) Northern Ireland	Religious/territorial	Long-term terrorist conflict for political aims
G) The Persian Gulf (Iraq)	Third-party invasion	UN-authorized military intervention
H) Peru	Terrorist/ideological	Country recovered from near-collapse
I) Rwanda	Ethnic	Little international assistance despite mass genocide
J) Somalia	Tribal/political power struggle	UN humanitarian intervention, violence against U.S. troops

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CAMBODIA

Location:	Southeast Asia; bordered by Thailand, Laos, and Vietnam
Area:	69,900 square miles (181,040 square km) (about the size of Missouri)
Population:	11,656,520 (in 1999)
Ethnic mix:	Khmer 90%, Chinese 5%, other 5%
Languages:	Khmer (official language), French, other
Religions:	Buddhist 95%, other 5%

Cambodia was an independent country until 1864, when it was taken over by France. France combined the region containing Cambodia, Laos, and Vietnam into a single administrative area known as French Indochina and took all but ceremonial powers from the king of Cambodia. After World War II, the Cambodians sought independence, and in 1953 their country was granted independence from France. Since that time, numerous parties and foreign powers have struggled to rule the country.

Prince Norodom Sihanouk ruled Cambodia from independence until 1970. He hoped to keep Cambodia out of the war in neighboring Vietnam, but in the mid-1960s North Vietnamese and Vietcong (South Vietnamese fighting to make South Vietnam communist) troops began to use eastern Cambodia as a base for attacks on South Vietnam. The U.S. air force began to bomb the Vietnamese bases in Cambodia, and Cambodia became caught up in the Vietnam War despite its deep desire to maintain neutrality.

On March 18, 1970, General Lon Nol seized power in a coup while Prince Sihanouk was abroad. The United States supported Lon Nol, but China and North Vietnam increased aid to their fellow communists, the Khmer Rouge, a local guerrilla movement that had begun to fight against the Cambodian government in the mid-1960s. By 1972 Cambodia was awash in war itself; North Vietnamese troops occupied large areas of eastern Cambodia, and the Khmer Rouge was in control of northern Cambodia.

The Vietnam Peace Agreement in 1973 stipulated the end of foreign involvement in Cambodia. After the United States withdrew from Vietnam and Cambodia, Lon Nol's government found itself losing the battle with the Khmer Rouge. In April 1975, Lon Nol was overthrown by Pol Pot, leader of the Khmer Rouge.

During Pol Pot's three and a half years of rule, he exterminated between one and two million of his own citizens. Pol Pot's attempt to transform the country into a Marxist agrarian society led to the almost complete extermination of Cambodia's professional and technical population. Nearly a quarter of Cambodia's people died of starvation or were killed under Khmer Rouge rule. It was one of the worst disasters of the twentieth century.

Once in power, Pol Pot turned against the Vietnamese. After Khmer Rouge troops crossed the border to attack Vietnam several times, the Vietnamese invaded Cambodia in December 1978. They quickly defeated the Khmer Rouge and installed a pro-Vietnamese government. Pol Pot and 35,000 Khmer Rouge troops fled into the hills of western Cambodia. There they joined up with forces loyal to the ousted Sihanouk and continued to battle the Vietnam-backed government. This guerrilla war continued for a decade before the Vietnamese decided that they could no longer afford to occupy Cambodia and announced that they would withdraw their forces from Cambodia in 1990.

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handout #3a

The Security Council members of the United Nations (UN) created a peace plan providing for peacekeeping and elections under UN supervision. All of the Cambodian factions, including the Khmer Rouge, agreed to this internationally mediated accord, and Sihanouk (now the king) was put back in power until the elections were held. The party of Prince Ranariddh, Sihanouk's son, won the May 1993 free elections over Hun Sen, the communist candidate. Hun Sen refused to accept the election's outcome and threatened to start another civil war. The UN and other Cambodian leaders agreed to let Hun Sen and Ranariddh act as co-prime ministers in a power-sharing coalition.

Meanwhile, the Khmer Rouge had boycotted the 1993 elections and continued its civil war from the jungles. However, large numbers of Khmer Rouge troops began to surrender to the government in 1996. Both Ranariddh and Hun Sen competed to add the surrendering troops to their own armies. When it appeared that most of the Khmer Rouge troops would surrender to Ranariddh, Hun Sen staged a coup in August 1997. After violent fighting in the capital, Hun Sen's forces prevailed. The remaining Khmer Rouge forces split into factions, and one of them arrested Pol Pot in 1997. Pol Pot died in April 1998, effectively ending the Khmer Rouge's resistance and leaving Hun Sen in power uncontested.

Group Task

Your group will be giving a presentation on the above conflict. In your presentation, first state where the conflict took place and point it out on a map. Then answer the following questions:

1) What was the conflict?
2) Who was doing the fighting during this conflict?
3) What were the causes of this conflict?
4) What were the major events in this conflict?
5) How was this conflict managed or resolved?

Last, think about how this conflict could have been avoided before fighting occurred. Using the five tools of foreign policy, organize a Conflict Prevention Plan and describe this plan to the class.

Please note that each member of your group should speak during the presentation, and that you are responsible for answering all questions your classmates may ask about this conflict. Your presentation cannot be more than ten minutes.

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EAST TIMOR

Location:	in the eastern part of Timor Island, between Indonesia and Australia, at the intersection of the Indian Ocean and the South China Sea
Area:	5,743 square miles (14,874 square km) (about the size of Connecticut)
Population:	850,000 (in 1999)
Ethnic mix:	Timorese 78%, Indonesian 20%, Chinese 2%
Languages:	Each of East Timor's twelve ethnic groups has its own language.
Religions:	predominantly Catholic

East Timor, a former Portuguese colony, was taken over by Indonesia in 1975. In the next twenty-three years, the people of East Timor demanded the right of self-determination—to choose their status as an independent country or as a part of Indonesia. Indonesia consistently refused to allow them that choice until 1999. When the East Timorese voters chose independence in that election, the violence intensified to the extent that the United Nations sent in a peacekeeping unit to facilitate the independence process.

When Portugal granted East Timor its independence in 1974, it declared that the citizens of East Timor would be allowed to decide whether to become a part of Portugal, become an independent country, or join its neighbor the Republic of Indonesia. This process sparked civil war between the Uniao Democratica Tomorense (UDT), a political party that favored some form of continued link with Portugal, and the Frente Revolucionaria Timor Lest Independente (FRETILIN), a left-wing movement that advocated complete independence. Portuguese authorities withdrew from East Timor in August 1975.

On December 7, 1975, Indonesia took over East Timor by sending numerous troops into the region and subsequently proclaimed East Timor its twenty-seventh province. The Indonesian government said that its military action came in response to local leaders who needed external assistance to overcome the battle between political parties. The elected People's Assembly of East Timor submitted a resolution to the Indonesian House of Representatives petitioning for incorporation into Indonesia, but foreign observers think that Indonesia forcibly steered East Timor into annexation. The United Nations (UN) has not recognized this annexation.

After 1976, guerrilla forces continued to resist Indonesian troops for nearly twenty-three years. Indonesia conducted a military campaign against the rebels and set up a program forcing the East Timorese people to integrate into Indonesia. The program included the mandatory use of Bahasa Indonesian (the official Indonesian language), the banning of Portuguese in schools, and the large-scale migration of Indonesian farmers into East Timor. In 1981, the UN called on Indonesia and Portugal to allow the people of East Timor to determine their own destiny, but the Indonesian government retained its claim over the region. The UN continued its initiatives that included dialogues between Portugal (which it recognized as the legal administrative power in East Timor), Indonesia, and sometimes East Timorese leaders; visits to East Timor; and resolutions condemning the situation. Some have proposed that the UN was not effective due to many Western nations' (including Britain, the United States, and Australia) economic and political interests in supporting Indonesia.

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handout #3b

Western news organizations frequently reported acts of violence and repression in the region, including the killing of civilians by the Indonesian military. Non-governmental organizations abroad kept the situation in East Timor on the international agenda through such activities as lobbying the UN and national governments for action, broadcasting films on East Timor, and demonstrating in front of Indonesian embassies. In addition, the award of the 1996 Nobel Peace Prize to Bishop Carlos Filipe Ximenes Belo and Jose Ramos-Horta, two East Timorese leaders, to honor their "sustained efforts to hinder the oppression of a small people" further affirmed the international recognition of the integrity and goodwill of the East Timorese leaders in the face of Indonesian subjugation.

In 1997, Indonesia was hit by the Asian economic crisis, which destabilized the country, including East Timor. In May 1998, President Suharto, the country's leader for thirty-two years, resigned amid intense pressure from student protesters. In January 1999, his successor, B.J. Habibie, let Indonesians throughout the country participate in the first free elections in decades and also allowed East Timor to vote for its independence. This decision created more debates and terror campaigns throughout East Timor, intended to affect the result of the vote. In spite of the violence leading up to the referendum, 98.5 percent of East Timor's 450,000 voters went to the polls on August 30, 1999 to choose between independence and autonomy within Indonesia. On September 3, 1999, the UN announced that 78.5 percent of voters had chosen independence from Indonesia. Following this, pro-Indonesian militia activity increased, leading to violence in which hundreds of East Timorese were killed and in which hundreds of thousands were driven from their homes. The militia also targeted aid workers, UN workers, and foreign diplomats.

A few days after the announcement of the election results, Indonesia imposed martial law and a shoot-on-sight curfew in East Timor, and UN Secretary-General Kofi Annan gave the Indonesian government a 48-hour ultimatum to restore peace in the territory before sending in an intervention force. Following a week of international pressure, President Habibie made a speech recognizing the failure of his regime to ensure security for the East Timorese and asking for the cooperation of the international community to restore peace. Consequently, the UN Security Council issued the September 15th Resolution, in which it urged a multinational peace-enforcement force to enter the territory as soon as possible. An Australian-led peacekeeping force secured the area in late September 1999, and the next month the UN Security Council voted to send in 9,000 replacement troops to keep peace in East Timor over the next few years.

Group Task

Your group will be giving a presentation on the above conflict. In your presentation, first state where the conflict took place and point it out on a map. Then answer the following questions:

1) What was the conflict?
2) Who was doing the fighting during this conflict?
3) What were the causes of this conflict?
4) What were the major events in this conflict?
5) How was this conflict managed or resolved?

Last, think about how this conflict could have been avoided before fighting occurred. Using the five tools of foreign policy, organize a Conflict Prevention Plan and describe this plan to the class.

Please note that each member of your group should speak during the presentation, and that you are responsible for answering all questions your classmates may ask about this conflict. Your presentation cannot be more than ten minutes.

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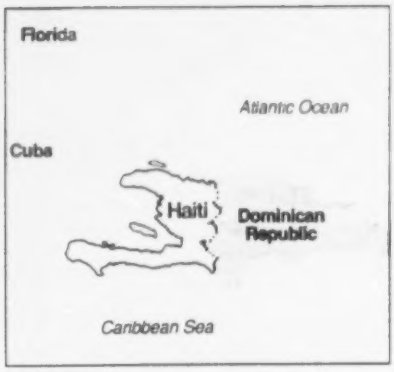
HAITI



Location:	Caribbean, western one-third of the island of Hispaniola (other two-thirds is the Dominican Republic)
Area:	10,714 square miles (27,750 square km) (slightly smaller than Maryland)
Population:	6,884,264 (July 1999 estimate)
Ethnic mix:	black 95%, mulatto (Afro-European) and white 5%
Languages:	French 20%, Creole
Religions:	Roman Catholic 80%, Protestant 16% (Baptist 10%, Pentecostal 4%, Adventist 1%, other 1%), none 1%, other 3% (in 1982)

Haiti is a nation that has been plagued by political violence for many of the years since it achieved independence from France in 1791. In the most recent episodes of the struggles for power in Haiti, democratically elected president Jean-Bertrand Aristide was deposed by a military coup on September 30, 1991. International condemnation followed, and three years later diplomatic and military action led by the United States reinstated Aristide as Haitian president. In 1996, power was successfully transferred from one elected Haitian president to another for the first time when Aristide's successor was inaugurated; however, there is still political unrest in this country that remains by far the poorest in the Western Hemisphere.

Haiti's history has been marked by interracial tension, politically motivated murders, and military dictatorships that began with the initial slave revolt in 1791. After years under a series of dictators, the people of Haiti elected Jean-Bertrand Aristide to the presidency in 1990 by a 67 percent majority. On September 30, 1991, seven months into Aristide's term, sections of the army overthrew the president, sending him into exile and instituting their own rule. More than 2,000 people are said to have died in those first six months, almost 600 of whom were killed during the coup itself.

International condemnation of the coup was swift. The Organization of American States (OAS), led by the United States, imposed an embargo on Haiti. The European Union and other countries suspended their aid and froze the Haitian government's financial assets.

The United Nations (UN) became involved in the conflict after it seemed that the United States was ready to take some action. In February 1993, a UN special envoy to Haiti convinced the Haitian army commander General Raoul Cedras to allow 250 civilian UN/OAS human rights monitors throughout the country. In June of that year, the UN applied an oil embargo and a freeze on financial assets. The following month, Cedras signed an accord agreeing that Aristide could return to office by October 30th and that Cedras would retire.

However, Cedras did not give up power in October as he had agreed. As a result, tough worldwide sanctions were initiated in May 1994, and in July the UN authorized the expulsion of the illegitimate regime by all means necessary. Citing this UN resolution, the United States prepared to occupy (take military possession of) Haiti with the help of twenty-four other nations.

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The United States gave these reasons as justification for occupying Haiti: to stop the atrocities committed by the military regime, to affirm the United States' determination to keep its commitments and its expectations that other countries keep theirs, to preserve the stability of democracy in the Western Hemisphere, and to avert the flow of refugees and secure U.S. borders. Due to the violent and repressive conditions of life under the military regime, hundreds of thousands of Haitians tried to escape the country: more than 58,000 of these migrants were intercepted by the U.S. Coast Guard during that four-year period.

On the eve of the occupation, a delegation sent by the United States convinced Haiti's military dictators to leave, and 20,000 U.S. troops moved in. On October 15, 1994, Aristide was returned to the presidency, aided by 6,000 U.S. troops. These troops were replaced by 6,000 UN troops in three months.

The Haitian army was disbanded, and a new police force—the Haitian National Police (HNP)—began its training in Haitian law, non-lethal use of force and traditional police skills, and human rights. The judicial and penal systems—which were considered dysfunctional, lacking in popular respect, and widely viewed as enemies of the people—were overhauled. However, in the absence of an experienced and trained law enforcement corps, there was a general breakdown of law and order by April 1995. Mob violence and murders continued to be common.

Presidential elections in December 1995 yielded the first successful transfer of power from one elected president to another in Haiti with the election of René Préval, but Haiti still had enough political and economic instability that the UN peacekeeping force was repeatedly asked to stay longer. Nationwide violence caused by ex-soldiers and ordinary citizens continues, claiming hundreds of lives.

Group Task

Your group will be giving a presentation on the above conflict. In your presentation, first state where the conflict took place and point it out on a map. Then answer the following questions:

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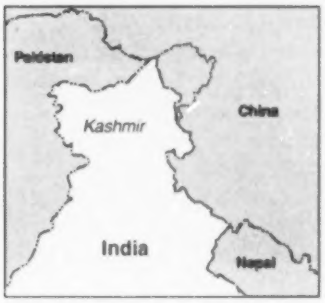
handout #3d

KASHMIR



Location:	province at northernmost tip of India in central Asia, surrounded by Pakistan, Afghanistan, China, and India
Area:	84,471 square miles (218,820 square km) (about the size of Idaho)
Population:	12 million (estimate) including 1.5 million refugees in Pakistan and 0.4 million living abroad
Religions:	mostly Muslim (Sufi) with substantial Hindu minority

Since the British granted them independence as separate nations in 1947, both India and Pakistan have claimed the state of Kashmir, which is located on the border between the two countries. While many citizens of Kashmir would like to make Kashmir an independent state, the dispute over this region remained the focal point of conflict between India and Pakistan into the year 2000.

The population of Kashmir is primarily Muslim with a substantial Hindu minority in one area. Historically, Kashmir has been known as an area of non-violence and religious tolerance—Muslims, Hindus, Buddhists, and others have lived in peace there for centuries. However, in 1988, after a series of rigged elections limited the involvement that local Kashmiris had in governing themselves, some Kashmiri groups turned to violence. Kashmiri Muslim groups advocating either independence for Kashmir or the incorporation of Kashmir into Pakistan began resorting to violence to achieve their goals, thus reviving a border dispute that was born during India's independence. When India and Pakistan were divided in 1947, Kashmir had wanted to remain independent of both countries, but it eventually joined India when Pakistan sent in troops to seize the state. Both India and Pakistan still claim the whole territory.

After the Kashmiri independence movement gained international attention, Muslim militants from Pakistan joined the fight against the Indian army. These militants fought to join Kashmir with Pakistan, seeing the conflict as a religious struggle. However, the goals of the Kashmiri fighters (as well as the form of Islam they practiced) differed from those of the militants from Pakistan. These militants were better armed and less compromising than the Kashmiri fighters. The fighting turned into an armed struggle between the militant Muslims from Pakistan and the Indian army, with the Kashmiri independence seekers continuing their struggle on a more minor scale.

Between 1988 and 1998, an estimated 20,000 to 30,000 people were killed among the Kashmiris, the Indian army, and the Muslim militants. Human rights activists believe that more than 3,000 Kashmiris were killed in the first two years, mostly by the Indian army, which has been guilty of torture and other human rights violations. By using unrestrained force in the area, the Indian army was successful in driving rebels from the cities into the mountains.

The governments of India and Pakistan have met over the years in attempts to resolve their conflict over Kashmir. In 1972, they signed the Simla Accord, which recognized a new border between the two countries in Kashmir and established a framework for resolving future border problems peacefully. In the more recent conflict over Kashmir, talks between

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the two countries were opened in 1997. The United Nations has mandated that the citizens of Kashmir choose by vote to join either India or Pakistan. In reality, gaining independence is not an option, however much the Kashmiris would prefer it. India cannot allow Kashmir to secede, because it fears that the loss of one state may lead to uprisings in other states and to the overall collapse of India, just as the USSR crumbled.

In the spring of 1999, a new factor was introduced that made the fighting in Kashmir even more significant and dramatically altered India and Pakistan's relationship—both countries demonstrated that they had nuclear weapons. India conducted five nuclear bomb tests in May 1999 and Pakistan soon followed with its own five nuclear tests. The conflict in Kashmir became the world's first direct combat between two nuclear powers, and consequently, a potential trigger for nuclear war. As of December 1999, India was insisting that the dispute be settled without interference from other countries.

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Kosovo

Location:	southeastern Europe, formally a province within the Serbian republic of Yugoslavia
Area:	4,203 square miles (10,886 square km) (about the size of Connecticut)
Population:	1.9 million (in 1991)
Ethnic mix:	ethnic Albanian 90%, Serbs 10%
Languages:	Albanian, Serbian
Religions:	Muslim (the majority of ethnic Albanians),Eastern Orthodox and Catholic (the majority of Serbs)

Against a background of growing economic disparity and ethnic conflict, the republics composing Yugoslavia began declaring their independence in the early 1990s. The independence movements in Croatia and Bosnia set off wars among ethnic Serbs, Croats, and Muslims, particularly as each group wanted to retain a large territory for its ethnicity.

Kosovo, a province of Serbia in which Serbs are a minority, had been used as an example to stir up Serbian nationalist sentiment a decade beforehand. Serbs consider Kosovo a culturally and historically important land because it is the heartland of their orthodox religion and of their identity. It was the land where their ancestors first settled in the seventh century, and important shrines of the Serbian Orthodox Church are located in the region. Moreover, Kosovo was the site of a 1389 battle in which the Ottoman Turks defeated the Serbs and consequently ruled the region for the following five hundred years. Many Serbs saw the Albanians as allies and servants of the Ottoman Turks.

Ethnic Albanians make up a 90 percent majority of the Kosovo population, but in the whole of Serbia they are a minority. In the province of Kosovo, Serbs are a minority of 10 percent. Kosovo became an autonomous province of Yugoslavia in 1974 after years of protest by the citizens of Kosovo. However, when Slobodan Milosevic, a nationalist Serb leader, came to power in 1989, the Serbian government revoked Kosovo's autonomous status; dismissed thousands of Albanian officials, professionals, and workers from their positions; and declared martial law in Kosovo in an effort to suppress the ethnic Albanians' independence movement. The ethnic Albanians in Kosovo responded with non-violent protests against these new measures. After years of peaceful opposition, an armed rebel group of ethnic Albanians called the Kosovo Liberation Army (KLA) was formed.

In 1996, the KLA triggered open warfare with Serbian troops, and by February 1998 the Serbian government had launched an aggressive offensive against the rebels that included "ethnic cleansing," or the systematic killing and forced migration of the ethnic Albanians from Kosovo. Some 300,000 people were displaced in that campaign. A cease-fire was arranged in October 1998, but the warfare continued when the cease-fire was broken that same month with the massacre of forty-five ethnic Albanians.

Protesting the continuing violence and unrest in Kosovo, the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO) threatened to bomb Serbia. The "Contact Group," an alliance between the United States, Russia, Britain, France, and Germany that had been responsible for negotiating peace in Bosnia, leveled sanctions on Serbia.

The international community's concern over the conflict in Kosovo focused not only on the atrocities of the "ethnic cleansing" but also on the possibility that the warfare of the region could eventually put two NATO allies (Turkey and Greece) in conflict with each other

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through a chain reaction of hostility and alliances. World War I was triggered in part by conflict among Yugoslavian ethnic groups, and most countries are determined to prevent a similar catastrophe from occurring.

Several Western countries sought the United Nations' (UN) approval to intervene militarily in Kosovo; but Russia, a long-term Serbian ally, refused to allow UN forces to attack Serbia. For the first time, NATO member countries decided to conduct a military campaign without UN approval. In March 1999, after continued Serb attacks, NATO began a bombing campaign against Serbia. The air strikes focused on military targets in Kosovo and Serbia but also included bridges, schools, media stations, and oil refineries. Within days of the first strike, tens of thousands of refugees poured out of Kosovo with reports of killings, atrocities, and forced expulsions by Serbian forces.

After eleven weeks of NATO bombing, Milosevic accepted an international peace plan. The key points of the agreement included the withdrawal of the Serbian army from Kosovo, the return of all refugees and displaced persons to their homes under international protection, and the creation of an interim administration for the province of Kosovo.

Though about 50,000 NATO peacekeeping troops (with UN authorization) have been sent to Kosovo to guarantee a secure environment and oversee the cease-fire, tensions still remain high. For example, a number of cases have been reported of ethnic Albanians using violence against the minority Serb population as revenge for their suffering. Many ethnic Albanians still hope to force the remaining Serbs out of Kosovo and create an independent all-Albanian state. Yet Western powers are not likely to accept another re-drawing of borders in the Balkans because any further spread of separatist movements would increase the instability of the entire Balkan region.

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NORTHERN IRELAND

Location:	British province in the northeastern part of the island of Ireland
Area:	5,462 square miles (14,147 square km) (about the size of Connecticut)
Population:	1,688,600 (in 1998)
Ethnic mix:	Irish
Languages:	English, Irish
Religions:	Protestant 61%, Catholic 39%

When the Republic of Ireland won its independence from Britain in 1921, Ireland's six counties with Protestant majorities (most of Ireland is Catholic) insisted on remaining united with Britain. These counties became the British province called Northern Ireland, where Protestants outnumbered the Catholics.

Under the Protestant majority, the Catholics of Northern Ireland were deprived of many of their economic, social, and political rights through a system that left Protestants permanently in power and in which twice as many Catholic men as Protestant men were unemployed. Then, in 1968, following the example of the civil rights movement in the United States, Catholics in Northern Ireland began agitating for their political and social rights through protests, marches, sit-ins, and the use of the media to publicize their complaints.

In 1969, when local (Protestant) police could not contain the civil unrest and even participated in attacking Catholic protesters, the British government sent in the army to restore peace. At first welcomed by Catholics as protection from Protestant violence, the presence of the British army prompted the re-emergence of Catholic militant groups dedicated to joining the counties of Northern Ireland to the rest of Ireland by using military force. The violence that had been riots between Protestants and Catholics in 1969 and 1970 turned into warfare between those Catholic militant groups (the Irish Republican Army being the largest of them) and the British army. Protestant paramilitary groups formed in reaction and joined in the cycle of violence, which reached a peak in 1972, when 474 were killed in Northern Ireland by the Irish Republican Army (IRA), Protestant terrorists, and British soldiers. In the same year, the British government dissolved the Northern Ireland government and began to rule the province directly from London.

The terrorism continued, claiming over 3,200 lives including hundreds of women, children, and the elderly by the time of the 1995 cease-fire. Tens of thousands were wounded in bombings, shootings, and deliberate maiming in attacks perpetrated in Britain and Europe as well as in Northern Ireland itself.

In 1985, the British and Irish governments attempted to address the roots of Catholic unrest by signing the Anglo-Irish Treaty, which let Protestants and Catholics share in the ruling of Northern Ireland and gave the Irish Republic a direct role in Northern Ireland. This agreement tried to deal with the social and economic discrimination that the Northern Ireland Catholics had faced, but it was rejected by the IRA because it did not reunify Northern Ireland with the rest of Ireland.

The 1985 Anglo-Irish Treaty had shown that the British and Irish governments were willing to negotiate, but the British refused to talk with the IRA (or the IRA's political representative, Sinn Fein) unless the IRA gave up its violence and its weapons. For its part, the IRA would not disarm unless the British agreed that the status of Northern Ireland could be changed even against the will of the majority of its inhabitants, namely, the Protestants.

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However, both the Protestants and the IRA were beginning to change their political positions as the 1990s wore on. The Protestants were coming to realize that they would have to make many compromises for peace, and the IRA was realizing that they would not be able to join Northern Ireland to the Republic of Ireland through terrorism.

In December 1993, after a series of negotiations, the British government announced that it would support Northern Ireland's right to choose between being part of Britain or part of the Irish Republic, and the Irish government stated that it would be wrong to force the province of Northern Ireland to join the Irish Republic without the consent of the majority of those in Northern Ireland. It was also agreed then that Sinn Fein could join the peace talks if the IRA could show that it was a "democratically mandated" group that was committed to "exclusively peaceful methods." Eight months later, the IRA announced a cease-fire, and the Protestant militants did the same two months after that. However, the British still insisted that the IRA disarm itself before it could join in any peace talks.

In May 1997, a newly elected British government stopped insisting on the disarmament, Sinn Fein won 16.1 percent of the votes in Northern Ireland (showing that it was "democratically mandated"), and peace talks that included Sinn Fein began shortly after that. The resulting peace accord, announced on Good Friday, April 10, 1998, promised to end thirty years of violence in Northern Ireland. The IRA and other militant groups agreed to disarm themselves by May 2000 in exchange for the release of their members being held in prison. More significantly for the whole province, Northern Ireland would be allowed to govern itself rather than being under direct British rule, and in the restored executive government there would be proportionate representation of Protestants and Catholics. In this way, Catholics would gain a greater voice in the government of Northern Ireland. In addition, the Republic of Ireland would be allowed a high level of involvement in the governing of Northern Ireland, which suggested that one day the whole of Ireland might be united. Northern Ireland Protestants who wanted to remain part of Britain opposed these constitutional arrangements that allowed Catholics and the Republic of Ireland so much say in the government of the province, but they agreed to them in return for peace.

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THE PERSIAN GULF (IRAQ)

(The following statistics are for Iraq.)	
Location:	in the Middle East, northwest of the Persian Gulf
Area:	169,235 square miles (438,330 square km) (about twice the size of Idaho)
Population:	19.9 million (in 1997)
Ethnic mix:	Arab 79%, Kurdish 16%, other 5%
Languages:	Arabic, Kurdish
Religions:	Shi'a Muslim 63%, Sunni Muslim 34%, other 3%

The Iraq-Kuwait border had been the center of attention between the two countries even before Saddam Hussein became president of Iraq in 1979. The Iraqi government recognized Kuwait as a country in 1963; however, relations were strained between the two countries for many years until the 1980s. During this time, Kuwait aided Iraq with loans and diplomatic backing in the Iran-Iraq war that lasted throughout the decade. However, Iraq had accumulated $80 billion in debts due to reconstruction after the war and insisted that Kuwait excuse its share of Iraq's debt. Iraq also accused Kuwait of pumping oil from a field on the Iraq-Kuwait border and refusing to share the revenue with Iraq. Kuwait was producing more oil than was deemed acceptable by the Organization of Petroleum Exporting Countries (OPEC). This overproduction reduced oil prices, which injured Iraq's economy since petroleum was its main export.

Saddam Hussein used his experienced and well-prepared military to dominate regional matters. Hussein began to mobilize these forces near the Kuwait border in the summer of 1990. When Hussein annexed Kuwait, the small country had hardly any military power or outside defense to forestall the Iraqi invasion. At first, the United States and other peacekeeping nations did not get involved in this dispute because they did not believe Iraq would occupy Kuwait. They assumed Iraq would only intimidate the Kuwaitis by patrolling the common border. Nevertheless, on August 2, Iraqi troops numbering 150,000 invaded Kuwait, which had only 20,000 troops. Responding to the occupation of Kuwait, the United Nations (UN) Security Council issued a number of resolutions denouncing Iraq's purpose and initiated a trade embargo of the country's exports. The resolutions also demanded that Iraq withdraw unconditionally from Kuwait by January 15, 1991. Overall, the UN sent more than 600,000 troops to Saudi Arabia to wage a war against Iraq. These troops came from sixteen countries, but the majority were American. The initial goal was to thwart further Iraqi tactics; however, most countries were aware that the force against Iraq would be used to drive Iraq from Kuwait.

The war proved to be disastrous for Iraq, which was forced out of Kuwait in six weeks. Tens of thousands of Iraqis were killed, and many of the country's armored vehicles and artillery were destroyed. Nuclear and chemical weapons facilities were also severely damaged. In April 1991, Iraq agreed to UN terms for a permanent cease-fire while coalition forces pulled out of the southern region of Iraq and a UN peacekeeping team moved into the area to control the Iraq-Kuwait border. The UN Security Council demanded that Iraq meet strict demands in exchange for lifting economic sanctions. These demands included destruction of its chemical and biological weapons, termination of its nuclear weapon programs, and acceptance of international inspections to ensure that these conditions were met. In June 1991, a UN Special Commission was established to monitor Iraqi disarmament.

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In the years since the Gulf War, Saddam Hussein's efforts to defy the UN by refusing access to UN inspectors has further increased the hostility between Iraq and the United States. In order to force Iraq to observe UN sanctions, the United States led a coalition effort to prepare military strikes targeted at Iraq in late 1998. Hussein's continued violation of UN resolutions ultimately culminated in Operation Desert Fox, a series of joint British and U.S. air strikes aimed at Iraq's military and security sites that took place in December 1998. Iraq continued to deny access to UN inspectors in 1999, and the conflict continued.

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PERU

Location:	west coast of South America
Area:	496,224 square miles (1,285,222 square km) (somewhat smaller than Alaska)
Population:	24 million (in 1997)
Ethnic mix:	indigenous 45%; *mestizo* (of mixed European and indigenous descent) 37%; white 15%; black, Japanese, Chinese, and other 3%
Languages:	Spanish, Quechua, Aymara, other indigenous languages
Religions:	Catholic 95%, other 5%

In the late 1980s, four grave challenges threatened to bring chaos to Peru: a collapsing economy, political corruption, drug trafficking, and the Sendero Luminoso ("Shining Path," in English), a brutal, powerful terrorist group. Inflation reached 7,650 percent in 1989, which devalued Peruvian currency drastically and left hundreds of thousands on the brink of starvation. In the midst of this declining economy, the Sendero Luminoso was waging a violent guerrilla war against the government in an attempt to make Peru into a radical communist country. Through extreme measures, the government was able to revive the economy in the 1990s and bring the Sendero Luminoso under control. The Sendero Luminoso continues its terrorist campaign today, but the conflict is much less widespread and deadly than it was in the 1980s and early 1990s.

The Sendero Luminoso is a group of revolutionaries whose goal is to "destroy existing Peruvian institutions and replace them with a peasant revolutionary regime."[1] The Sendero Luminoso started in the 1960s and used schoolteachers to spread its message, which combined Marxist beliefs with Andean mythology. They gained popularity in the countryside, where indigenous people mired in poverty saw them as an alternative to the government, which neglected the poorer areas of the country.

In the 1980s, the Sendero Luminoso started its military campaign. They began to invade villages and kill all those who might resist Sendero Luminoso rule. The villagers fought back, making the countryside of Peru a site of bloody battles. These became even worse when the government arrived to battle Sendero forces. The Sendero Luminoso soon started attacking every official institution in Peru, and became incredibly brutal. Car bombs and dynamite were their weapons of choice. They formed alliances with producers of illegal drugs and began to accumulate large sums of money through the drug trade.

As Peru's economy became worse and worse in the late 1980s, starvation increased in the shantytowns around Lima, the capital of Peru. In 1989, Sendero Luminoso invaded the shantytowns. Soon, no government workers or police would enter certain neighborhoods of Lima for fear of being killed. Peruvians were awash in fear, as bombings and assassinations rocked Lima. The Sendero Luminoso threatened to bring down the government.

In 1990, Alberto Fujimori was elected president. He immediately made extreme economic policy changes, and started to wage a full-scale war against the Sendero

[1] Sendero Luminoso (Shining Path, SL).
http://www.terrorism.net/Pubs/tpw/00000W01.htm

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Luminoso. Fujimori suspended the constitution, gave the army free control over two-thirds of Peru, fired the nation's lawmakers, and set up special courts to try accused terrorists. All these measures were criticized heavily by human rights groups.

In 1992, the leader of the Sendero Luminoso was captured, and the remaining leaders fought among themselves for power. With the Sendero Luminoso significantly weakened, several terrorist leaders surrendered to the government and provided information used to capture other members. By 1997, the Sendero Luminoso threat had subsided. Though small groups of Sendero Luminoso forces remained in Lima's slums and the high Andes and still carried out terrorist acts, they no longer endangered the nation's stability. Most Peruvians are now able to go about their lives without fear of being caught in the civil war that killed more than 25,000 in the 1980s and 1990s.

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RWANDA

Location:	central Africa, between Zaire and Tanzania
Area:	10,707 square miles (27,732 square km) (about the size of Maryland)
Population:	7.6 million (in 1997)
Ethnic mix:	Hutu 89%, Tutsi 10%, Twa pygmy 1%
Languages:	Kinyarwanda, French, Kiswahili
Religions:	Catholic 65%, traditional beliefs 25%, Protestant 9%, other 1%

There are two main ethnic groups in Rwanda, the Hutus and the Tutsis. Both groups speak the same language, but they are often physically distinguishable (the Tutsis are conspicuously tall). There is extreme hostility between the two groups due to decades of ethnic conflict.

Although the Tutsis currently comprise only 10 percent of the population, they ruled Rwanda for over 500 years until 1959. When the Tutsi king died that year, the Hutus revolted and gained power. They periodically waged violent campaigns against the Tutsis. A rebel Tutsi army began to fight against the Hutu government in response.

This army was but one of many challenges Rwanda faced in 1994. The economy had been driven into a deep recession when the price of coffee, Rwanda's main export, fell sharply in 1986. Rwanda's very high population density created an intense competition for land. Radio broadcasts began to claim that Tutsis were planning to exterminate the Hutus and take their land. This type of threat created serious tensions, since Tutsi rebels were indeed waging a guerrilla war against the government. Seven hundred thousand Tutsis had been driven out of Rwanda by the Hutu government, but these refugees were plotting revenge from neighboring countries.

Under these dire circumstances, the president of Rwanda signed a peace agreement with the Tutsi rebels in 1992. This agreement permitted Tutsi officials to share power in the government, allowed Tutsi refugees to return from neighboring countries, and made Rwanda a multi-party democracy. However, Hutu extremists were strongly opposed to these concessions. They made preparations to destroy the Tutsi population and kill any Hutus who opposed their plan as well. After shooting the president's plane down on April 6, 1994, these Hutu extremists engaged in the world's worst genocide since Hitler's extermination of Jews in World War II. Identification of their victims was made even easier by the fact that all Rwandans carry identification cards with their tribe's name on them. The genocide had been planned in detail, and local officials, police, the militia, and peasants participated in the killings. Between April and June 1994, about 800,000 Tutsis were killed, one of the worst slaughters in history.

Though Hutu extremists gave ample warning that they planned to commit genocide, the international community took no action. In fact, when the plane crash killing Rwanda's president set off the violence, the United Nations (UN) tried to avoid the situation, sending all but 270 of its 2,500 troops in Rwanda home. The UN commander argued that with 5,000 troops he would be able to prevent the killing of hundreds of thousands of Rwandans, but there was no response from the UN Security Council. The members of the UN did not want to put their citizens into such a dangerous situation, especially after thirty Americans had been killed in a peacekeeping mission in Somalia the year before. France finally sent some troops in August 1994, five months after the outbreak of violence, and this small force prevented the deaths of thousands.

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In the same month, the Tutsi army defeated the Hutu killers and forced them into neighboring countries. The nearly two million refugees resulting were mostly Hutu. Together with another one and a half million people still in Rwanda but forced from their homes, about half of the country's population were refugees. Tutsi refugees living in neighboring countries returned in late 1994, safe now that Rwanda had a Tutsi government. However, in 1996, Hutu refugees began to attack Rwanda from neighboring countries. With the history of ethnic killings between both groups and their demands for revenge, the start of a new war remains a constant possibility.

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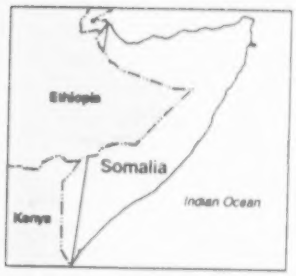
SOMALIA



Location:	on the eastern coast of Africa, bordering Ethiopia, Kenya, and Djibouti
Area:	246,155 square miles (637,540 square km) (slightly smaller than Texas)
Population:	7,140,643 (July 1999 estimate)
Ethnic mix:	Somali 85%; Bantu, Arabs, and others 15%
Languages:	Somali (official), Arabic, Italian, English
Religions:	Sunni Muslim

The Somali colonies controlled by Italy and Britain were granted independence almost simultaneously in 1960 to form the unified country of Somalia. However, not all Somali tribes were incorporated into this new country. Some Somali tribes remained within the boundaries of neighboring countries, including the Ogaden area of Ethiopia.

In 1977, Somalia invaded its neighbor Ethiopia in an effort to gain the Ogaden area but was forced to withdraw in 1980 by the overwhelming Ethiopian military forces. Somalia lost much of its military equipment and thousands of soldiers, and about 650,000 Somali refugees fled out of the Ogaden area into Somalia as a result of the war. Drought combined with this influx of refugees to add great strain to Somalia's economic and political situation, which was deteriorating through the 1980s with little help from the Siad government (which had come to power by military coup in 1969). In this context, the Ethiopian government was able to establish a rebel group (the Somali National Movement, or SNM) based on one of the clans that made up Somali society. Somali society was composed of a number of clans that were suspicious of each other and of the central government.

In April 1988, a peace agreement between Somalia and Ethiopia allowed exiles of the SNM to return to Somalia. The exiles brought with them weapons supplied by Ethiopia and used them to attack government garrisons and two Somali cities. Somali government troops fought back with great brutality, shooting at least 5,000 people in the first cities it recaptured. Refugees fled to Ethiopia at a rate of 4,000 to 5,000 people per day. Rebel groups representing the different Somali clans arose, and civil war spread throughout the country.

One of the rebel groups forced President Siad Barre to flee the capital in January 1991, leaving Somalia in total anarchy and the cities looted and abandoned. The northern part of Somalia (formerly British Somaliland) proclaimed itself the Somali Republic in May 1991 and maintained a stable existence, although it has not been recognized by any country. The faction that drove Siad Barre out of power set up a government in the capital, Mogadishu, but that soon collapsed.

In 1992, during a drought, the militias of the warring clans seized so much food from people in the countryside that they created a famine. Half a million people died, while 800,000 people fled abroad and over 2 million left their homes in search of food during this famine. Relief agencies were powerless to deliver emergency food to the starving because when the supplies landed, they were immediately seized by the militia. The international community debated about what action it should take, and in December of that year the United Nations (UN) Security Council approved a U.S. resolution sending a U.S.-led operation that would allow the emergency supplies to be delivered. This was the first time the UN intervened directly in a country's internal affairs since the early 1960s.

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When the famine ended, the UN calculated that a million lives had been saved by its efforts. It then wanted to set up a new government, hold elections, and restore civil society. Meanwhile, the troops in the UN operation had become involved in the politics of the country. Local resistance to the UN troops resulted in skirmishes with deaths on both sides. Among other incidents, over 100 Somalis were killed by Pakistani and U.S. troops defending themselves from a mob attack on September 9, 1993. Also, in a failed attack on one of the Somali warlords' headquarters, eighteen Americans were killed and one captured. After television films showed the Somali mob abusing the American bodies, U.S. President Bill Clinton ordered an evacuation of the troops. By the time the last Americans had withdrawn in March 1994, 30 U.S. troops had been killed and 175 wounded. The other peacekeeping forces suffered 72 killed and 87 wounded. The UN kept a presence in Somalia for another year, after which the Somali factions were left to continue the civil war.

Ethiopia and other east African nations have made constant efforts to bring peace between the warring factions. Some degree of peace has been achieved through a series of conferences among the factions, but getting all the leaders to attend has been the most difficult obstacle. A representative conference in November 1997 produced a cease-fire agreement and peace plan, and the two main warlords based in the capital, Mogadishu, signed it. However, the leader of the Somali Republic and other important leaders refused to attend the conference. Although the northern part of the country is unified as the relatively stable Somali Republic, Somalia for the most part remains in chaos, with multiple warlords controlling small areas of the southern part of the country.

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Student's name: _____

RECENT CONFLICTS COMPARISON CHART

Conflict Area	Warring Parties	Causes	Parties Involved in Resolving Conflict	Prevention Techniques
1)				
2)				
3)				
4)				
5)				

Conflict Area	Warring Parties	Causes	Parties Involved in Resolving Conflict	Prevention Techniques
6)				
7)				
8)				
9)				
10)				

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APPENDICES

GLOSSARY

annexation: incorporation of a country or territory within the domain of a state

autonomy: a limited form of self-government. The fifty states of the United States have a certain autonomy that allows them to make their own laws regarding local matters. Autonomy does not usually extend to control over foreign affairs.

boycott: to engage in a concerted refusal to have dealings with (as a person, store, organization, or nation), usually to express disapproval or to force acceptance of certain conditions

cease-fire: an agreement to stop fighting, indefinitely or for a set length of time

civilian: a person not in the military or police force

colonialism: control by one power over a dependent area or people

communism: the political system under which the economy, including capital, property, major industries, and public services, is controlled and directed by the state

country: an area of land that forms or might form an independent political unit with its own government

deadly conflict: systematic, sustained violence between groups within a country or between countries

democracy: a system of government in which the supreme power is vested in the people and exercised by them directly or indirectly through a system of representation usually involving periodically held free elections

deterrence: the maintenance of military power for the purpose of discouraging attack

deterrent: something that deters (prevents or discourages an action from happening)

diplomacy: the art and practice of conducting negotiations between nations

disarmament: the reduction by a nation of its military forces and weapons

displaced person: a person who is forced to leave his or her home because of war or persecution. Whereas a refugee is forced to go to another country, a displaced person may still live in the same country, but is unable to return to his or her home.

glossary

ethnic cleansing: the expulsion, imprisonment, or killing of ethnic or religious minorities from areas that were taken over by forces of an opposing ethnic or religious group

ethnic group: a group distinguished from others by race, customs, language, etc.

European Community/European Union (EC/EU): the twelve European states that united in 1992, concluding a long-planned European economic merger. After 1992 the EC association, which has since expanded to include fifteen states, has been known as the EU.

genocide: the deliberate and systematic destruction of an entire racial, political, or cultural group

guerrilla war: fighting involving a small band of irregular (not in a regular army) soldiers that would be no match for an enemy force in a conventional battle. Guerrillas instead wage war by covert means, such as making surprise attacks on enemy supply lines.

indigenous people: native people who have lived in the same place for hundreds or thousands of years, such as the Native Americans of North America

interstate: between two or more states (countries). For example, the conflict between Pakistan and India is an interstate conflict.

intrastate: within a state (country). The conflict in Northern Ireland and the U.S. Civil War are examples of intrastate conflicts.

martial law: rule of a state by the military, usually as a temporary measure, caused by an emergency and involving the suspension of ordinary law

massacre: an act of complete destruction; cruel killing of a large number of helpless people

militia: an armed force of citizen soldiers

mulatto: a person of mixed white and black parentage

nation: a community of people of mainly common descent, history, language, etc., forming a unified government or inhabiting a territory

nationalism: the belief that the promotion of one's own nation as a culturally distinct and independent entity is more important than any international considerations. Since the demise of communism, which held national identities in check, nationalism has again become one of the chief driving forces in world affairs, and is at the root of many wars.

nationality: the status of belonging to a particular nation

NATO (North Atlantic Treaty Organization): a military alliance signed in 1949 by 16 countries: Iceland, Norway, Denmark, Spain, Portugal, Greece, Turkey, Italy, Belgium, Netherlands, France, United Kingdom, Germany, Luxembourg, United States, and Canada. The purpose of NATO is the joint defense of all of its members and the peaceful coexistence with all nations; it regards an attack upon any one member as an attack upon all members. NATO organizes joint defense plans, and military training and exercises.

paramilitary: forces that work alongside of, or in place of, regular military forces. Often they do not have any official sanction and act in secret.

propaganda: the spreading of ideas, information, or rumor for the purpose of helping or injuring an institution, a cause, or a person

refugee: one who flees to a foreign country in order to escape danger or persecution. Refugees may flee for religious, racial, political, or human rights reasons, or because of territorial partition (e.g., India and Pakistan in 1947).

regime: the government in power; the term is often used to refer to a military government, or to a government that lacks legitimacy

sanctions: punitive measures, usually taken by several countries in concert, to put pressure on a country to change its policy. The UN, for example, put economic sanctions on Serbia in order to stop it from supporting Bosnian Serbs in the Bosnian War. Sanctions may be economic (banning trade, for instance) or diplomatic (withdrawal of relations). They are usually imposed because a country is considered to be in violation of international law.

secession: the act of formally withdrawing from membership in a political federation

security: freedom from danger; something that gives protection or safety. National security, for example, relates to policies that provide for effective national defense against an external or internal threat.

separatism: a movement by a region, territory, or ethnic group to break away from a country of which it is a part. Since the fall of communism, separatism has broken out in many regions of Eastern Europe and Central Asia, as groups of people with a distinct cultural identity have sought to free themselves from the larger nation that formerly contained them.

sovereignty: the possession of independent political power

state: an organized political community under one government, sometimes as part of a federal republic (e.g., the United States of America)

tariff: a tax imposed by a government on imported goods

terrorism: the pursuit of a political aim by means of violence and intimidation

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